

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 23, 1881.

## The Week.

THE general alarm spread through the country on Saturday at the news of the President's relapse, though greatly diminished by the despatches and bulletins received since, has by no means altogether disappeared. The chill which occurred on Saturday at half-past seven in the morning was followed by another four hours later, and this by a high fever. There was a third chill just before midnight. The consulting physicians from New York and Philadelphia reached the White House early Saturday evening, when a consultation was held, which showed that a pus-cavity or abscess had formed two or three inches below the point where the bullet had entered the President's body. This rendered an operation necessary, and an incision was made resulting in a complete discharge and a relief from the distressing symptoms which had been caused by the obstruction. No indications of pyæmia, or blood-poisoning, have appeared, and the later despatches all go to show that the operation has substantially restored the President to the condition in which he was before the relapse. The courage and endurance displayed by the President throughout his sufferings have been so remarkable as to deepen greatly the public interest and sympathy. A new danger in the malaria of the Potomac has been called to the attention of the physicians by the sudden development of fever and ague among some of the persons in attendance. The summer climate and atmosphere of Washington are not at all what one would choose for a severely wounded man, who has been in constant fever for nearly a month, to be exposed to; but of course this is unavoidable until he recovers sufficient strength to be moved. The public ought to understand, meanwhile, that in his present condition relapses may occur from time to time, and that the best guaranty we have that they may not prove fatal is the fact that the case is now thoroughly understood by the physicians, and that the President has a moral and physical capacity to resist suffering of the most extraordinary and encouraging character.

The election of Mr. Warner Miller in Mr. Platt's place was followed last week by the election of Mr. E. G. Lapham as Mr. Conkling's successor. The small band of Stalwarts which had resolved to stand by Conkling to the last, found that their responsibility for detaining the Legislature at Albany and preventing "harmony" in the party was rapidly becoming too much for them, and signs of a tendency to "weaken" showed themselves in their ranks. The difficulty was to know how they could all become "Judases" gracefully, and at the same time effectively. They could not go into a "caucus," because they had all

along refused to do so, but there seemed to be no reason why they should not go into a conference first and afterward into a caucus; and this course it was which they accordingly adopted. After negotiations between some of the most eminent "Half-Breeds" and "Stalwarts" at Albany the Conklingites agreed to go into a conference and abide by its result. When the conference had got into working order some one made the suggestion that they might as well have a "full caucus" at once, on which a "full caucus" immediately developed itself out of the conference, and in this a vote which was promptly taken showed that Mr. Lapham had 61 votes, while Mr. Conkling had 28 as usual. The Conklingites having thus got themselves into a position in which it was necessary for them all to become "Judases" together, cheerfully went into the joint convention, and all voted for Mr. Lapham, thus completing the "vindication" of Mr. Conkling, to secure which he has gone through so much.

Yet the effect produced on Mr. Conkling's mind by the final abandonment of his fortunes by this little band of Stalwarts was one not of scorn and hate, but of profound gratitude. He called none of them "Judas," but sent a despatch expressing his gratitude and admiration for "the heroic constancy of the Spartan band which so long had stood for principle and truth," recognizing the fact that they had been "borne down by forbidden and abhorrent forces and agencies," and predicting that "the memory of their courage and manhood will long live in highest honor." In the evening there was a serenade and a general jubilee, which called out two speeches from the Senators elect. Mr. Miller's speech was mainly historical; he pointed out to his hearers that the Republican party had emancipated 4,000,000 slaves, had crushed a rebellion and preserved a glorious Republic, had restored "a Union," had paid "a nation's debt." Mr. Lapham said that his colleague was no better an Administration man than he was himself—which is queer if true—and predicted that the mission of the party would not be ended "until the time shall arrive when the laws will be self-executing within all our borders." The Legislature adjourned the next day, to the profound satisfaction of every man, woman, and child in the State.

The uninfluential position in the Government occupied by the Vice-President has of late been the subject of extensive newspaper discussion. It has been suggested that the Vice-President be made by law a member of the President's Cabinet. Those who advocate this proposition forget that the Cabinet is not, and never has been, in our governmental system the creature of law. The law provides for a Secretary of State, of War, of the Treasury, and so on, but not for a cabinet as an executive

council. The President may call the heads of departments together as a cabinet council and consult with them if he pleases, or he may not call them together as a cabinet at all. No law compels him to do so. He may also, if he pleases, call in any person of his choice to take part in the meetings and deliberations of the Cabinet, and no law stands in his way. If, therefore, the President sees fit to invite the Vice-President to meet with the Cabinet as one of its members, there is absolutely nothing to prevent it. No law is required for that purpose. But so far no President seems to have been favorably struck with the idea, and there is scarcely any prospect that President Garfield will form an exception to the rule.

Postmaster-General James is reported to be considering the question whether it would not be wise in making appointments in the executive departments to permit members of Congress to nominate candidates, and then to subject the candidates so nominated to an examination. This plan, which is not entirely new, having been discussed and rejected in the Interior Department a few years ago, has some plausible features. It is said that it would secure a proper distribution of offices among persons from different parts of the country, and in a measure satisfy members of Congress. It would, indeed, tend to secure an "equal" distribution of places on geographical principles, whatever that may be worth, but the same object can be attained in another manner much more consistent with the interests of the service—by the appointment of a commission to conduct open competitive examinations, whenever required, in different parts of the country. As to the second point, the ordinary member of Congress will not really be satisfied unless he can use the offices as patronage for his own political benefit. On the other hand, constituents do not want merely to be examined, they want to be appointed, and the member of Congress will use his whole influence to that end. In the first place, he will oppose competitive examinations with all his might, and endeavor to substitute for them mere pass examinations. Notoriously, such examinations in our service soon degenerate into a hollow semblance of the thing—into an illustration of the art of how not to do it. But that is exactly what the ordinary member of Congress desires, and, having reached that point, his right to nominate for examination will in nine cases out of ten be equivalent to a right to nominate for appointment. This will be the result; it will be reached by more or less slow approaches, but it will be inevitable. If we are to have civil-service reform with a little patronage in it, we shall soon have, as heretofore, a good deal of patronage with very little or no civil service reform in it.

Another arrest of Star-route conspirators was made last week in Philadelphia, the prin-

cipals being secured, but their tool—the nominal “lowest bidder” in the transactions—being still at large. The latter is an impecunious laboring man, named Wiley, whose employment as a figure-head in proposals to carry the mails “between Tucson and Tombstone, Arizona,” was part of the humor of the frauds connived at by Brady. Wiley’s rôle of course was “to fail,” whereupon the contract was awarded anew at reduplicated figures to the members of the ring. The Postmaster-General has made public some of the evidence against them, including a letter from Mr. William E. Chandler. This statesman, happening to be in Nevada in July, 1879, in pursuit of mining property, was surprised to learn that a mail was to be put on between Osceola and Frisco. He accordingly wrote “my dear Brady,” whom the *N. Y. Times* had been exposing for upwards of a year, his opinion of the utter needlessness of it, saying that it would be a sheer waste of the public money, and that he was sure Brady would countermand it “unless the star-service money is appropriated to be squandered.” Mr. Chandler may never have enquired whether Brady heeded him, as of course he did not; and if the Congressional investigation of last year did not make him suspect the integrity of his political friend and fellow-“worker,” he must have been greatly shocked by the revelations which have cost Brady his place and his reputation, and ultimately, it is to be hoped, his liberty.

Judge Clifford of the Supreme Court died on Monday in the seventy-eighth year of his age. His mental faculties had been impaired for some time previous to his death, and his place on the bench has been practically vacant in consequence. He refused to resign, however, in the hope that the election of a Democratic President might render certain the appointment of a Democratic successor; but he will now, of course, be succeeded by a Republican. As a judge his industry and conscientious accuracy were remarkable, as well as the rigidity of his political convictions. His appointment to the bench was one of the results of the Dred Scott decision, and he took the place of Judge Curtis, with whom it would be unfair to compare him. His partisanship, however, was chiefly the result of the narrow legal view of the relation of the States to the general Government which the old-fashioned New-England Democrat always took, and bore no resemblance to that bitter and unscrupulous spirit of faction with which the politics of our day threatens to taint the judiciary.

Judge McCrary has recently made a decision in the Eastern District of Arkansas which contains some suggestions that will, we fancy, be both novel and interesting to railroad men. The case was one brought by the Southern Express Company against the Memphis and Little Rock Railroad, to prevent the latter’s excluding the former from the transaction of business on its line. The judge decided that the railroad was bound to carry for the express

company, and must not discriminate against it either in favor of itself or of other express companies; but he added the following significant remarks: “I am not prepared now to fix the maximum rates to be charged for the transportation of express matter; but I have no doubt of the power of the court after investigation to do so. An order for this purpose should not, as a rule, be made until after a reference to a master, and a report by him after a hearing.” But why should the report be only on maximum rates? or why should it be confined to express companies? It is obvious that it could not be so confined in practice, for Judge McCrary’s decision goes upon the ground that express companies stand upon the same footing with other customers of the road. If the courts’ aid were once called in to fix maximum rates for them, it must soon be used for the purpose of fixing all rates, for freight and for passengers as well. In fact, the judge would have to run the railroad, see that the crops were “carried to tidewater,” “cut rates” when necessary, exterminate “scalpers,” “consolidate” and “pool earnings” with other judges. Probably some of the courts would develop greater talent in railroad management than others, and this would produce judicial Jay Goulds and Vanderbilts, after which we should have to begin over again with new remedies.

The *Herald* publishes in fac-simile a letter written by the California “Tichborne,” which shows that the art of personating that gentleman has made a considerable advance since the failure of Arthur Orton to recover the family estates. One of the chief mistakes that Orton made was through displaying a want of familiarity with French and Latin, with both which languages the missing baronet had been familiar. The translation of “*Laus deo semper*” by “The laws of God for ever” made no impression on his immediate circle of friends, perhaps because they thought it correct, but with most people this and some similar slips in French made the improbability of his story seem very strong. The new Tichborne has taken a lesson from these little mishaps of his predecessor, and shows his familiarity with French, at least, at every turn. In the *Herald’s* letter, which is addressed to his friend Colonel Barnes, of San Francisco, he drops into French in a way bewildering enough to confuse his oldest friends. Not only does he sign himself “*Votre très-humble et très-obéissant serviteur*,” but he spells many English words in a way that would seem almost to betray a French birth rather than a French education. Mr. Barnes has addressed a letter to him telling him plainly that he regards his story as “very remarkable, and worthy of notice as an effort of imagination if nothing more,” but that if he wants to have it looked into he must come from San Diego to San Francisco and have it properly investigated, and offers to advance money for the purpose. He is now understood to be making an effort to “sell out” at San Diego before taking his departure for England—an attempt which may be regarded by “a friendly

mind,” says the *Herald* correspondent, as “in perfect harmony with the whole course of this much wronged or sadly erratic wanderer.”

The Coles homicide will probably do something to call attention not only to the practice of carrying concealed weapons, which is at the bottom of so many crimes of violence, but also to the abnormal position which female homicides evidently feel has been established for them. According to the account given by Mrs. Coleman of her proceedings, she had been in the habit of carrying a pistol to “protect” herself, and as soon as she discovered that her husband knew of her intimacy with Coles she immediately got this pistol and killed him. By this means, it seems, she has greatly endeared herself to her husband, and the latter is now engaged in warmly promoting her defence, and a very affecting interview has taken place between the two in jail. Now, how did it happen that Mrs. Coleman was in possession of a pistol, and why had she been in the habit of carrying it to “protect” herself? Clearly because she was in the habit of going about in a way that respectable women do not generally go about, so that the taking of life had become to her not an altogether unfamiliar or unattractive idea. She goes to a theatre with a female friend, and accepts a private box from an unknown man in the ticket-office, and then goes off and drinks with him. It is absurd to suppose that a married woman does not know to what such adventures as this lead, and if he takes an improper advantage of her, her killing him with a pistol she “happened to have in the house” is none the less a case of deliberate, premeditated murder. As a defence, this statement of the case, put forward by the woman herself, is a curious illustration of the state of mind which women like Mrs. Coleman—and there are multitudes of them in every large city—must believe the community to have reached on the subject of homicide originating in improper relations.

At the Stock Exchange, speculative shares declined during the week from 1 to 9 per cent. This was partly brought about by the President’s relapse, and partly by the further cutting of rates by the trunk-line railroads, the lowest figures yet recorded having been made in the last few days. The decline, which now ranges for the month from 5 to 20 per cent., many leading stocks having fallen over 10 per cent., has forced a great many sales of stocks that have been carried on “margins”; and these, with the “short sales” of professional speculators, have made the downward current at times seem irresistible. Mr. Vanderbilt is quoted as saying that the trunk-line war will continue, for anything he can see, until winter, and as expressing bitter hostility to the new rival lines projected or in process of construction. The money market continues easy. Foreign exchange has declined, and is steadily drifting towards the gold-importing point. General trade continues large in volume. Railroad traffic shows no falling off, and it is



clear that the present railroad war is waged less on account of deficient tonnage than for other reasons. Silver bullion in London advanced to 51½d. per ounce. The bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar closed at \$0.8643.

The statement made on Monday in the House of Commons by Sir William Harcourt shows that ten infernal machines have been discovered on board two vessels at Liverpool just arrived from this country; that each machine contained eleven cartridges of nitro-glycerine and a compound in the nature of gun-cotton. The machines were shipped in barrels as cement, and the British Government were informed of the consignment, and even of the names of the vessels in which they were to come, three weeks in advance. The Home Secretary is also reported to have stated his belief that the shipment was connected with "the avowed projects of the Fenian press in America," and expressed the conviction that the United States will give efficient aid to Great Britain in its efforts to destroy "these associations of assassins." In the absence of further facts it is impossible to tell whether these machines were intended to be put to active use or whether the shipment was merely designed as a new Fenian scare. In either case the shippers, if they can be found, have made themselves liable to fine and imprisonment under the laws of the United States. The Revised Statutes require all dangerous articles, such as nitro-glycerine or gun-cotton, to be distinctly marked on the outside "with the name or description of the article contained therein," and make an infringement of this requirement a misdemeanor, punishable by a fine not exceeding two thousand dollars or imprisonment not exceeding eighteen months, or both. There is also a penalty of five hundred dollars for shipping such articles on board a passenger vessel. These provisions, however, were not designed to meet the case of the shipment of explosive machines, expressly constructed for the destruction of life on a large scale, and are ridiculously inadequate for such a purpose. What punishment should be provided for such an offence is a question which requires careful consideration. Modern science and modern facility of transportation have brought within the reach of criminals stupendous agencies for the destruction of life, and criminal laws have by no means kept pace with the rapid advance in the machinery and means of crime.

The Home Secretary thinks that the shipment of these machines can be connected with the agitation in favor of the "skirmishing fund" in the Irish press of this country, as to which representations were made some time ago by the British Government to ours. If anything of this kind can be shown, there can be no doubt that the Government would do all in its power to bring the criminals to justice. The misfortune is that in the present state of the law so little could be done. A prosecution for

shipping infernal machines is one thing; a prosecution for inciting people generally to subscribe to a fund for the purpose of carrying on outrages in behalf of Ireland, which leads some one to ship infernal machines to Liverpool, is something more difficult to deal with. Sir William Harcourt says that our Government has returned no reply to the representations of the British Government with regard to the articles published by the Irish press here.

It is clear from the utterances of their own press that the French begin to feel that in Africa they have sown the wind to reap the whirlwind. The *promenade* to Tunis, with the theatrical speedy return, before the deadly heats of midsummer, turns out a very serious affair in its consequences. A little sharp fighting after a very sonorous bombardment, as last week at Sfax—whether it cost a score or a hundred of men, or even more—is certainly not distasteful to the nation that has been for ten years panting for a little fresh military glory. But to have to fight when complete victory has been triumphantly announced; to have to order the naval squadrons just returning to sail back again; to see the power of the African prince declared a *protégé* crumble away in a day before the fanaticism of his subjects; to have to threaten the Porte on account of its doings in Tripoli, and at the same time solemnly to declare to England that Tripoli is the Porte's inviolable possession; to see the country occupied east of Algeria menaced with a general insurrection at the moment when the south of Western Algeria is devastated by tribes of the desert, and abandoned by its French defenders; to have provoked both England and Italy, and to hear all the world sneeringly declare that France has sunk her chances of revenge on the Rhine in the desert bottoms of Africa, and feel that there is much truth in this view—all this cannot be but galling in the extreme to the patriotism and vanity of France. Difficulties and dangers have been unnecessarily created, the glory achieved is at best questionable, and, as a French paper stinging remarks, Bismarck alone applauds.

The news from Russia continues to be very unsatisfactory. Nothing as yet has been done towards the creation of a *modus vivendi* between the Government and the more or less revolutionary elements of society which would render even a brief period of tranquillity and recuperation possible—not to speak of normal, healthy activity above and below. The Government has as yet apparently no other thought than that of momentary peril, of averting new catastrophes. Every day—almost literally so—new and startling evidences of deadly conspiracy against Alexander II. or Alexander III. are brought to light. All St. Petersburg seems to be undermined. No department of the Government itself is free from the secret intrusion of Nihilism. Officers of the admiralty supply explosives; boats selected to transfer the Court from Gatchina to Peterhof—which has been done—are found to hide instruments of destruction; princes of the blood, the Grand

Duke Constantine Nikolayevitch and his son are treated as if they were plotters against the Czar. No new policy is enunciated or distinctly foreshadowed. Ignatieff, formerly a free-spoken diplomatist, is more reticent than was his cunning Armenian predecessor in power, Loris-Melikoff, now virtually an exile. There is talk of transferring the seat of government to Moscow, and the Slavophiles of that old capital are now undoubtedly more in favor at the Court than the *Zapadniki*, or friends of western institutions; but, although the new Czar evinces some courage in now and then exposing himself in public, the courage to act, to initiate a measure, or to declare an important intention seems to be completely wanting.

Interviewing kings is a branch of journalism which has been hitherto comparatively neglected, and we are glad to see that a beginning has been made by a correspondent of the London *Standard* upon Prince Alexander of Bulgaria. The correspondent was well received by the Prince, who "expressed his pleasure at meeting a representative of the *Standard*," and proceeded to make a very frank statement of his position and intentions. He is anxious to have these understood in England, not by "Mr. Labouchere and those who think with him" (for, he says, "I know well enough what kind of people they are"), but by the English people. He did not, it seems, wish to become Prince of Bulgaria, because he had read the "half-republican constitution" and "knew the man who drew it up," but he gave his consent merely to oblige the late Czar. He then goes on to give an account of the difficulties with which he has had to contend as a ruler, which seem to have been very serious. In two years he had to "dismiss seven cabinets and two Chambers," and "to oppose a large number of useless bills." In fact, "no really useful law has been proposed in the Chamber." They are all "childish and selfish; not meant for the good of the people, but only to benefit the governing clique"—which he elsewhere refers to as the "ring." The Bulgarian "ring" is headed, it seems, as is usually the case with rings, by ten or a dozen "ruling men" living in the "great towns" and in the "lowest society." The Prince soon found that they had all the power, while he had all the responsibility. "There was no justice to be found in the whole country. Judges who declined to obey their commands were dismissed or otherwise got rid of." Meantime the Prince had "learned to like" the Bulgarian people, who were thus misgoverned, and was puzzled to know what to do. Finally he took the Emperors of Austria, Russia, and Germany into his confidence, and asked them what course he had better pursue. They all said, "Do what you please, but do not leave Bulgaria." Finding that this was the view taken of his constitutional duties in the quarters where they were best understood, he proclaimed a dictatorship in order to secure "future freedom and the constitutional rights of the people." He thinks this can be done in seven years, but it may take longer.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

## DOMESTIC.

ON Friday afternoon the President had a serious relapse, the main symptom of which was a chill, which it was at first thought might indicate pyæmia, or blood-poisoning, although the danger from this had been regarded as nearly if not quite over. Drs. Agnew and Hamilton, the consulting surgeons, were telegraphed for on Saturday. The bulletins admitted the gravity of the check to the President's convalescence, and despatches announcing it were sent by Secretary Blaine to Minister Lowell. It was discovered upon examination on Sunday, however, that the cause of the unfavorable change was the obstruction of the natural discharge of the wound by the deflection of part of the wounded rib, which had caused the formation of a cavity of pus in the fleshy part of the back. This being lanced, the President experienced immediate relief, and it is maintained that the two apertures thus secured afford additional opportunities for satisfactory treatment. Nevertheless, Drs. Hamilton and Agnew now relieve each other at the bedside of the patient.

Nothing occurred to explain the mysteriousness of Mr. Conkling's request last week that his followers should remain "solid for another twenty-four hours." On the contrary, the "current" set so strongly in favor of the Administration nominations that the Stalwarts concluded on Thursday that all that remained for them to contend for was decent terms of capitulation. Different measures to this end were discussed, and finally, on Friday, the Conklingites determined that, if a conference could be held, they would attend it, endeavor to get a caucus called, and be bound by its action; if unsuccessful, they would be bound by the decision of the conference. The success of the first alternative, it needs to be pointed out for the benefit of distant observers of the controversy, involved the discrediting of the "caucus" which nominated Messrs. Miller and Lapham. The conference, however, was called by Senator Robertson in joint session, distinctly on his own responsibility, as he said, and, before it could be exactly determined whether or no it was a conference or a caucus, or what its effect would be upon the "record" of the Stalwarts for consistency and firmness, and, in general, their title to be called the "Old Guard," enthusiasm was insidiously introduced and Mr. Lapham was nominated in a trice. Later in the day he was formally elected by a vote of 92 to 42 for Mr. Clarkson N. Potter. Great applause greeted this result. Cheers were given for the two Senators-elect, for President Garfield, for Roscoe Conkling (given with great zest), and then, to console the Democrats for this exhibition of party harmony, for Mr. Potter.

In the evening a serenade was given to the newly-elected Senators by the 1880 Club, which is composed of Half-Breeds, and the Grant Club, a Stalwart organization. Both Senators made speeches. That of Senator Miller was almost exclusively patriotic, but Mr. Lapham's has excited some remark on account of several of its observations. He declared that he and his colleague had not been elected "for the poor purpose of dispensing the Federal patronage in this great State of New York," and continued: "That is an inferior portion of the high duty devolving upon a Senator from the Imperial State. It is a duty which my honorable colleague and myself, I trust, will be able to discharge with malice to none, with hatred to none, with charity to all. There are other and higher duties," etc., etc. These sentiments were greeted with applause at the time, but have since awakened censure as indicating a misconception of the main objection to the notions of the Senator whose term Mr. Lap-

ham is chosen to fill out. Mr. Lapham was received at his home, Canandaigua, on Saturday, with the ringing of church-bells and general popular acclamations, but the rejoicings were naturally affected by the serious news from Washington. As Mr. Lapham observed at Auburn, en route, he had only time to hope that "the dastardly effort to add the name of President Garfield to the roll of martyrs may prove abortive."

The Democrats, after the senatorial contest was definitively settled, issued, through their joint caucus committee, a sonorous and lofty address to the people of the State "without distinction of party." In this document they speak of the expense to the State of the enforced duration of the session and of the cause of the same, which they characterize as "a question of official patronage or the spoils of office." The removal of Collector Merritt was made, they say, "in total disregard of every announced principle of civil-service reform, and was not called for by any principle of political duty nor in the interest of the public service." They are equally severe upon "the useless resignation" of the Senators, which "has cost the State not only a large amount of money, but, what is more valuable, its honor, dignity, and self-respect." They also allude derisively to the "vulgar but expressive" names of Stalwarts and Half-Breeds, and say that the only bond of union between them has been opposition to the Democrats. They pay their respects to "a man named Warner Miller," refer to the bribery charges, and charge Guiteau's crime upon "that personal fanaticism which was and is the fruit of a greed for public office, and of a false and dangerous political education." Finally, they appeal to well-recognized popular sentiments "against this enormous and aggressive personal power."

The Legislature adjourned on Saturday with uncharacteristic quiet, considering the turmoil of the last seven or eight weeks of its session, which in all lasted six months. The customary speeches were made, marked by the customary candor and felicity. In response to a Senate resolution of thanks for his discharge of the duties of presiding officer, Senator, now Collector, Robertson congratulated the Senators "on the unqualified approval by your constituencies of the manner in which your senatorial duties have been discharged." In the Assembly Speaker Sharpe congratulated his colleagues "that in legislation you have responded to the desires of a great constituency, and if measures of public interest which were uppermost in the minds of the people have failed, in whole or in part, the failure will not be laid at your doors." Among these measures the Citizens' Street-Cleaning Bill is perhaps the most important; and this and the election of Senators in the place of Messrs. Conkling and Platt, as well as of Platt in the first place, have been the distinguishing marks of the Legislature of 1881.

The case of Jenkins Van Schaick against the Western Union Telegraph Company, already before the courts, was before Judge Barnard, at Poughkeepsie, last week, on motion of the plaintiff's counsel to set aside an order granted the week before, vacating the injunction previously granted against distributing the \$15,000,000 of so-called watered stock. After argument, the Court denied the motion on the ground that there was no great public benefit to be obtained, and the matter had already been tried (before Judge Truax) on its merits, and therefore the parties considering themselves aggrieved would have to submit.

A sudden decline in Metropolitan Elevated Railway stock on Monday brought out the fact that on Saturday Mr. Cyrus W. Field, on behalf of the New York Company, had brought suit in Kingston before Judge Westbrook to obtain possession of the Company's property

now held by the Manhattan Company. The allegations of the affidavits on which the petition was based have already become familiar to the public through the recent similar litigation, of which there has been so much begun. Judge Westbrook granted an order requiring the defendants to show cause why the petition should not be allowed.

The Warren Court of Enquiry, adjourned some months ago after the taking of the testimony in the case, resumed its sessions on Monday for the summing up of counsel. It was arranged that each side should have two days for argument, and Mr. Stickney at once began on behalf of General Warren, who was present. General Sheridan was detained in the West and will leave the conclusion of his case wholly in the hands of Major Gardner, his counsel.

The committee appointed by Bishop Potter (Protestant Episcopal) of this diocese to "enquire whether the rumors and allegations which had been current for some time were of a sufficiently serious character and sufficiently well founded to present the Rev. Edward Cowley for [ecclesiastical] trial," rendered their report on Friday. The "Rev. Mr." is better known as "Shepherd" Cowley, and has been, it will be remembered, indicted, convicted, sentenced, and imprisoned for uncommon inhumanity. The committee, which consists of Rev. J. H. Rylance, Rev. Jas. Mulcahey, Rev. C. C. Tiffany, D. B. Whitlock, and E. H. Cushman, "after a very long, laborious, and conscientiously-prosecuted investigation," as they say, "are compelled to refrain from presenting the Rev. Edward Cowley for trial in a court of the Church for crime." That is to say, they do not regard indictments and convictions, by grand and petit juries respectively, as "rumors and allegations" of a "sufficiently serious character and sufficiently well grounded" to have any weight, *per se*, with an ecclesiastical examining tribunal. This decision has given rise to considerable unfavorable criticism on the part of "Churchmen" who are also lawyers.

One of the most singular murders that have occurred for a long time in this city was the shooting last week, in the Bowery, of a man named Coles by a woman named Coleman, the alleged motive being indignation that the victim had truthfully told the murderer's husband that he had been intimate with her.

The custodians of the cemetery containing the bones of William Penn, which the Pennsylvania Legislature have expressed a desire to procure and bury in the land that bears his name, are unalterably opposed to the removal of them, and the opinion as to the project on the other side of the Atlantic is probably expressed by the London *Times*, which says: "It is little better than mockery to think of doing honor to such a man as Penn by the grotesque proposal to disturb his remains." Meantime, the Philadelphia *Ledger* explains that it is a great mistake to regard any resolution of the State Legislature as the opinion of the people of Pennsylvania, particularly in this matter, which has every appearance of the proverbial teapot tempest.

The Ohio State Temperance Reform Convention met at Cincinnati on the 20th inst., and, after adopting resolutions of characteristic import, nominated a ticket of which the candidates for governor and lieutenant-governor, respectively, are Abram R. Ludlow and Jason McVeigh.

So much has been said about the anti-temperance views and action of Governor Foster, of Ohio, who is a candidate for re-election, that he has written a letter to the "Ohio Anti-Liquor League," which held a convention at Loveland on the 20th inst. In this communication the Governor asserts that the many charges against him are untrue and out-



rageous; that he has been accused, for example, of saying that "the Methodist preachers ought to be snubbed," whereas "such a thought never occurred to" him; that he has been charged with refusing to deliver a temperance address on a certain occasion, the fact being that he had not been asked to deliver one; that similar accusations as to his holding a reception in a Sandusky liquor-saloon, "meeting saloon-keepers in conference," and so on, are all, so far as he has heard of them, absolutely without foundation. "Nevertheless," he does not believe that "either local option or prohibition or a tax-law is constitutional," and therefore supports the liquor plank adopted by the late Republican convention which nominated him, and which calls for the submission of the question to the people with a view to legislation hereafter, when possibly it will be necessary to take sides decidedly as to the essence of the point really at issue.

A statue of the late General McPherson, marking his grave, was unveiled at Clyde, Ohio, on Friday, in the presence of twenty-one posts of the Grand Army of the Republic. Ex-President Hayes was president of the day; there was a procession a mile long, and an estimated audience of 18,000 persons present. General Sherman unveiled the statue and made the most noteworthy of the several speeches delivered on the occasion.

The latest news from the crop-raising region of the Northwest is not more favorable than heretofore, so far as wheat in particular is concerned. That cereal is said to be in a critical condition. Corn, however, and oats and barley are reported as doing very well. The army-worm is a pest in Illinois, but has not appeared elsewhere, except in Iowa, where its ravages have been comparatively slight.

Senator Dawes, of Massachusetts, has just written a letter upon the subject of civil-service reform, in which he objects to the diffuseness of the discussions upon the topic, and endeavors to concentrate attention upon what seems to him the most pressing evil—namely, "Congressional participation in appointments to office." In support of this he contributes instructive incidents within his own experience, but, he remarks, it is idle to fix the question of blame since the evil "stares the most earnest and thoughtful statesmanship in the face," "eats out the soul and consumes the life-blood of the legislator, and must be ended." His way of ending it is a short and easy method of dealing with applicants by "two brief orders" to be issued by the President, announcing first that no man will be appointed to any office while he is in the City of Washington, and, second, that no man will be rewarded who brings, unasked by the President, the recommendation of any member of Congress.

Judge Nathan Clifford, of the United States Supreme Court, who has been ill and demented for many months, died at his residence in Cornish, Me., on Monday. Judge Clifford was appointed by President Buchanan, January 28, 1858. His last prominence was as a member of the Electoral Commission of 1877.

The death is also announced of George Payn Quackenbos, LL.D., well known as the author of popular school-books and for other services to education.

Sitting Bull has at last "come in" and reported to Major Brotherton. A speech which he made upon his reception amounted to very little. His frame of mind, however, is conveyed by the remark, "I now wish you white people to help me to whatever I am to have."

## FOREIGN.

The House of Commons was on Monday mainly occupied with the subject of Irish outrages, of which distinctly so-called, by the way, there have been few or none to speak of during the week. Sir William Harcourt began the

discussion by announcing that the Government of the United States had not yet replied to the representations of the British Government as to incitement to outrage, but admitted that no "representations" had been made in regard to dynamite plots. However, ten "skirmishing machines" had been seized at Liverpool on their arrival from this country, having been discovered by detectives. Intelligence of these had been received, Sir William said, more than three weeks ago, and investigations were in progress both in England and America to ascertain the authors of the diabolism. He added that for more than nine months subscriptions looking to this result had been open in America, and that the Irish-American Fenian press had made during that time constant threats of outrages. He quoted the example set by Great Britain in dealing with the *Freiheit*, and expressed confidence that Americans would find it to their interest to be similarly vigilant with regard to associations of assassins. The incident has, of course, aroused more openly-expressed indignation in the British press.

The Land Bill got through its committee stage on Friday, and the order to report it to the House was greeted with "loud and prolonged cheers." The last committee action upon it was the rejection of a clause moved by Mr. Chaplin, Conservative, supported by the Home-Rulers, requiring a yearly return to be made to Parliament of the judicial rents fixed by the court. Mr. Gladstone's objection was that such a return would give rise to "invidious remarks without conferring any corresponding benefit." The Land League demonstration at Dublin on Sunday is described as a doleful failure. "There were only twenty horsemen," the cable says.

Mr. Bradlaugh has obtained some additional notoriety during the week. Last Wednesday, in an interview with the House of Commons Inspector of Police, he declared that he did not intend to bring a mob to Westminster when he came to present himself at the table of the House to take the oath on August 3, but frankly admitted his inability to prevent a crowd from gathering. He has, however, summoned for the preceding evening a meeting for an orderly protest in Trafalgar Square against his exclusion. Friday, the jury in the suit in which he was a defendant for having sat and voted in the House of Commons without taking the oath returned a verdict of £500 against him.

The funeral of the late Dean Stanley took place at Westminster Abbey on Monday, and was, of course, attended by an eminent gathering. At the rear of the procession were deputations from the American Educational Aid Association and the American Exchange in Europe.

It is unofficially reported from the Transvaal that the Boer triumvirate have rejected sixteen out of the thirty-six articles drafted by the royal commission, and that Sir Evelyn Wood will shortly leave Pretoria for Zululand. The terms, as settled by the royal commission, give the Boers the right to elect the Volksraad and the President; the whole of the Transvaal is to be retroceded, and the suzerain given the right of declaring war.

The heat in London and Paris continues, though it has somewhat abated in the former city.

The *Pall Mall Gazette*, following its unpleasant vaticinations regarding American financial prosperity, displays even greater anxiety about the Paris money market, which, it says, "thoughtful men" consider "the weakest great money market in the world at the present time."

Lord Colin Campbell and Miss Gertrude Blood, an Irish heiress, were married on Thursday, and the presence in England of Mrs. Victoria C. Woodhull Blood has caused several of

the esteemed contemporaries to report that the bride is a daughter of that odorous lineage. Upon contradiction, the credulity given to the report is explained on the ground that the British aristocracy are capable of anything.

Lefroy, the supposed railway murderer, has been committed for trial.

French affairs in North Africa have experienced no substantial change during the week, though considerable activity is reported. It is not yet known whether Bou-Amena, who was at first heralded as the successor of Abdel Kader, has succeeded in raising a fanatical revolt of large importance, though the quasi-subordinate tribes are clearly in a state of much commotion. An engagement near Sfax, which resulted very favorably for the French, is reported, and the announcement is made that the French commander in that region has ordered the immediate disarmament of the natives and the payment of a war indemnity of 15,000,000 francs, a sum which, even if collected, will possibly fall short of satisfying the demands of foreign residents for damages incurred during the shelling of Sfax. The holy city of Kairouan is said to be a refuge of Arabs from Sfax and to have revolted. The Bey's troops are reported to be deserting him by hundreds, and the Tunis aqueduct has now to be constantly guarded. Tripolitan tribes are raiding in the neighborhood of the capital and are as hostile to the Bey as they are to the French. The French press is more hostile than ever to Turkey, and attributes to the Porte a desire to stir up dissensions in Tunis as well as to disaffect Tripoli. Meantime the Sultan of Morocco has appealed to the Porte to stop the North African agitation, with what result it does not yet appear. It is announced that the expedition to proceed against Bou-Amena in the fall will consist of three columns of twelve hundred men each.

General Cialdini has left Paris and gone to a bathing resort, and Baron Marochetti, the Italian Chargé d'Affaires, has been appointed a commander of the Legion of Honor, and the result is announced to augur a conciliatory feeling on the part of France towards Italy.

Despite some opposition on the Republican side, the French Chamber of Deputies on Friday granted 2,500,000 francs to reinforce the naval strength of the Republic in the Gulf of Tonquin, "owing to piracy there."

Twenty-five pupils of the military school of Saint-Cyr have been sent to a regiment to serve for five years as second-class soldiers for attending Mass on the birthday of the Comte de Chambord.

Don Carlos has issued a protest against his expulsion from French territory, the cause of which can only have been, he says, his presence at the Mass celebrated for his uncle on St. Henry's Day. He also refers to the French treatment of Spanish settlers in Algeria in terms of sorrow, but explains, with true Bourbon charity, that "France is not responsible for the acts of her Government."

A London report announces the laying of an independent cable from Germany to Valentia and thence to this country by arrangement between the German Telegraph Company of Berlin and the German Union Telegraph Company. The cost is said to be fixed at £165,000, for which preference-shares bearing 5½ per cent. interest are to be issued.

A rumor that Midhat Pasha had opened his veins with scissors to prove his theory that Abdul-Aziz could have committed suicide in that way was telegraphed last week, and was even contradicted. Midhat's fate is now said to have been placed in the hands of the late Sultan's children, from whom it is believed he can expect more justice if not more mercy than from the Turkish tribunal which lately tried him.

## MR. CONKLING'S EXIT.

THE defeat of Mr. Conkling forms an instructive chapter in our political history. It is a clear case of "greatness" mania with a fatal result. Mr. Conkling had evidently become the victim of singular hallucinations in consequence of circumstances for which he was not altogether accountable. When a man who is naturally inclined to inordinate self-esteem finds himself constantly surrounded by flatterers, who never cease to speak to him of his superiority over all other men, and bow to his will in all things, he will finally himself believe in his own sublimity, and mistake his relation to the universe. He will gradually begin to look upon himself as the centre of creation, and regard the gratification of his selfishness as an inborn right, which everybody else is bound to respect. That Mr. Conkling's mind gradually drifted into this morbid condition was undoubtedly, in a measure, owing to the obsequiousness of his friends. They must, to a great extent, be held responsible for the follies of his course and his final downfall.

Mr. Conkling was led to forget that in a republican country a public man, however able, must persuade in order to exercise power. He has always been naturally disposed to despise those who did not agree with him. He was so overweening in his consciousness of grandeur that it gave him no concern when he made enemies: it was rather a pleasure to him to offend; it became natural to him to hate. So he made one enemy after another. They could not injure him as long as they were few, but he managed to increase their number until they exceeded the number of his friends.

But more than that. Here was a man of ability whose self-conceit, stimulated by the reckless flattery of his followers, made it appear superfluous to him to learn. He was constantly told that he was a very great statesman, and he readily believed it, without feeling the necessity of studying those great questions of public concern a thorough understanding and wise treatment of which are the first requisites of true statesmanship. And so it happened that with regard to the most important problems of our day the opinions of this prominent party leader, assuming him to have had any, had no weight whatever. Such as he had, or seemed to have, were the crude impressions of ignorance or at best of half-knowledge. He put forth his "great efforts" almost exclusively on questions in which personal or party power was involved. Power was his object; not power for the purpose of accomplishing statesmanlike ends, but power for its own sake, to be employed only for the purpose of acquiring more power. It is questionable whether in using this it gave him more pleasure to reward his friends or to punish his opponents.

One of his great boasts was his unswerving party fidelity. Every independent movement he treated with a sneer. And yet it is well known that he contemplated with cheerful composure the defeat of his party when its victory would have given an advantage to his opponents within it. He had become so ac-

customed to look upon his own predominance as the supreme interest of his party, that without it the party appeared to him unworthy of consideration. It is perhaps just to Mr. Conkling to say that in this conceit he was perfectly honest. Any opposition to his authority in the party appeared to him like an act of rebellion against a legitimate ruler, and in this State the well-organized and disciplined force of his retainers was for a considerable time strong enough to execute the political death-warrants decreed by him. He was easily led to believe that on the national field he was as strong as for a long time he had been at home, but in this he overreached himself. He failed at the Chicago Convention in imposing his will upon the Republican party, and when he tried to subdue President Garfield's Administration, and found that his opponents were as much regarded as himself, he had to resort to what he thought a terrific *coup d'état*. Many have speculated profoundly upon his motives in resigning. He simply expected that the whole American people would stand aghast at the thought of losing him from the political stage; that the Senate would not dare to think for a moment of confirming Mr. Robertson in his absence; that the Legislature of New York would at once be on their knees begging him to go back to the Senate, and that public opinion would wrathfully condemn an Administration which had recklessly exposed the country to the danger of losing Roscoe Conkling's services.

We know how absurdly mistaken he was. Instead of the Legislature imploring him to go back to the Senate, he had to beg the Legislature to send him back. The sternly faithful partisan even went so far as to plan a coalition with the Democrats for his benefit. All in vain. The greatness built upon the power to grant favors and to punish opposition began at once to crumble. It was at last discovered that he was not genuine—not genuine as a statesman, for he had not been a leader of opinion; not genuine even as a partisan, for he had not hesitated to sacrifice the ascendancy of his party in order to serve his own interests. All that remained was the pomp of an impressive personality, the reminiscence of former power, and perhaps in the minds of timid persons the apprehension of a possibility that this power might be regained. But the gilt was off—the inferior metal had appeared; and even if the gilt could be put on again, it would deceive nobody, for the substance beneath was known. For this reason Mr. Conkling's defeat is one from which he can never entirely recover. As the downfall of ungenue greatness it is an instructive spectacle, especially to young men in public life. They see a man of ability, who but a short time ago appeared to be one of the most powerful in the country, not only defeated but utterly shattered. He still deludes himself by ascribing his defeat to "forbidden and abhorrent forces," whatever that may mean. But the force that defeated him was not corruption in the Legislature, although there may have been much of it: it was the almost

unanimous judgment of the people, who not only condemned his conduct but, which is worse, had actually grown tired of him.

We do not mean to say that Mr. Conkling will never return to public life. If he tried to do so at once it would only be a fruitless prolongation of the agony. But if he should now devote himself to an earnest enquiry into the great problems of public concern which hitherto he has neglected, he might at some future time easily make himself more useful than he has been in the past. He can, of course, never be again what he was, and still less what he tried to be.

## RESTORING "HARMONY."

No candid man can deny that there is a great deal of truth in the review of the recent Senatorial struggle put forward in the shape of an address to the people of the State by the Democratic members of the Legislature. No one can deny, for instance, that the source of the long detention of the Legislature at Albany was "a question of official patronage or the spoils of office." No one can deny that the Collector of this port was removed "in the midst of his term of service from a place where he was serving with general acceptance to the public and appointed to a place abroad—uncalled for by his friends or by the public—in which he has no experience," nor that the change was made "in total disregard of every announced principle of civil-service reform." It is true that this quarrel over the offices between the "Stalwarts" and "Half-Breeds" first resulted in the election of a "third-class man" to the Senate, and that the subsequent resignation of Mr. Platt and Mr. Conkling not only was "useless," but has cost the State a great deal of money and of self-respect as well. It is true, also, that these resignations were simply due to the displeasure produced in the mind of Mr. Conkling by his apprehension that the Custom-house might be used to reward his enemies and punish his friends. The address gives, too, a fair enough account of the objections which may be urged against Mr. Warner Miller and Mr. Lapham as representatives of New York in the Senate. Without any further examination of the various counts of the indictment, we may sum it up by saying that the Democrats treat the whole contest as a mere squabble over the offices, which has been carried on in such a way, and has produced such results, as to show that the Republican party is wholly unfit to continue in power.

The Democrats evidently feel that it is unnecessary for them to do more at present than to "arraign" their opponents, and call the attention of the public to the exhibition they have been making of themselves, to carry the State this fall. They will, of course, in the fall hold a convention and put forward some very fine principles in a platform that will contain a resolution loudly calling for civil-service reform; but their main reliance will be upon the split between the "Stalwarts" and the "Half-Breeds," and the paralyzing effect



which such a split may be expected to have upon their adversaries. The quarrel has already furnished the Democrats with a good deal of valuable political capital, and one of the most important questions in politics at the present moment is how their attack is to be met.

It can be met in only one of two ways—either by the unsparing use of patronage for the formation of an Administration Machine to take the place of the Conkling Machine, or by an appeal to popular sentiment through the adoption of such a course as will show the public that the day of Machines is over. The supporters of Mr. Conkling must be filled with alarm and despondency at the result of their struggle and their present position, and their most serious interest just now must be connected with the patronage on which they are so fast losing their hold. Now, with politicians who are in this frame of mind the offices may be undoubtedly used so as to heal the breach which has been opened. Some may be placated by being given an opportunity to help in the management of a new Machine, in which they shall exercise their old power and influence, but for the benefit of the Administration rather than of its enemies; others may be driven into obscurity by having their places in the Machine taken away from them, and so on. This is one way to restore "harmony" in this State, and it is the one which commends itself to some of the most skilful managers of the "Half-Breed" and the "Stalwart" persuasion. This method, however, while it eliminates or crushes out discontent among the conspicuous officeholders who manage the Machine, has no necessary effect upon the body of the party at all; and if it be conceivable that the public at large has become thoroughly disgusted with this old-fashioned way of restoring "harmony," it ceases to answer its end. You may make a Speaker of the Assembly, and even a Commissioner of Public Works, thoroughly "harmonious" in this way, so that the Machine which they manage will run without a creak; but if the spectacle of a Machine run in this way excites public disgust, their "harmony" will be of no practical use whatever. Now this, we believe, is just what has happened. The public disgust aroused by the proceedings at Albany has not been merely with one particular kind of Machine, but with the institution itself, and any further use of it now by the Administration to offset its preceding use by the Conklingites will only excite further dissatisfaction.

This throws us back on the other method, which is the abandonment of the Machine altogether, and an appeal to popular sentiment on the subject by a determined effort to sever once for all the connection between the conduct of the business of the Government and the conduct of the business of ward meetings and conventions. There is no State where the experiment could be made with more safety than in New York, where the existence of a considerable floating vote, undetermined and undeterminable by any amount of "harmony" among the managers, is admitted.

A third method, that of producing "harmony" in the party by dividing the offices between the two factions, has been already tried, but has failed so completely that it will probably never be resorted to again. There cannot be two "Machines" of the same party at one time in any State, and the attempt to make an equal distribution of offices between "Stalwarts" and "Half-Breeds" can only embitter their differences. In fact, it was the attempt to do this which led in a great measure to the ferocity of the late conflict.

#### TAXATION IN VERMONT.

THE citizens of Vermont are, it seems, very much pleased with the practical results of the new tax-law of that State. This enactment requires every taxpayer to make a sworn return of all his property to the assessors, and authorizes the assessors, in case this is not done, to ascertain the amount of his property and double his assessment, and provides that all property shall be assessed at its full value. Simple as these provisions appear, says a correspondent of the *Times*, their effect has been to add \$63,000,000 to the tax-lists.

The requirement of a full list of property is said to have at first "created considerable feeling, particularly among business men"; but it was complied with by all but a hundred of the seventy-three thousand taxpayers of the State. Those who refused obedience, however, were some of the wealthiest men in Vermont, and one of them, "to the shame of the judiciary, be it said," was a judge of the Supreme Court. Another judge of the same court, however, has given expression to the general public sentiment on the subject in a charge to the Grand Jury, in the course of which he said: "If the enforcement of this tax-law should fill our prisons, or drive off people not willing to bear their equal share of public burdens, the better it will be for the State. Better a small population of honest men than a large one of perjurers and shirks."

The provisions of the Vermont law seem to have been copied from that of New Hampshire, and also closely resemble those of the Massachusetts law, which gives the assessors power to "doom" any taxpayer who fails to make a return by an arbitrary valuation of his property. In other respects the tax-laws of New England do not differ much from those of New York, but these penal features constitute an innovation which originated with, and, we believe, is still confined to, that part of the country.

Economists and people who allow themselves to be misled by economists will perhaps find it hard to understand why the Vermonters should be so hugely delighted with their new law. This, however, is because the New England view of taxation is very different from that taken by economists. According to the latter, taxation, being an impost levied upon the profits of industry, is a burden which ought to be made to weigh as lightly as possible upon the community, and hence they have generally agreed in regarding it as an essential

feature of a good system of taxation that it should be levied upon as few articles as possible, that the machinery for its collection should be simple, and above all not inquisitorial.

In New England the view taken of the whole subject is quite the opposite of this. The New England theory of taxation is not only that a tax ought to be collected on everything, but that the machinery for collecting it should be so oppressive and inquisitorial that the taxpayers must either "pay up" or leave the State. Indeed, with many persons in New England the old notion that the primary object of taxation is the collection of revenue, has been supplanted by the idea that the principal use of a tax-law is to ascertain the moral character of the community, and, as Judge Veazey says, to drive away "perjurers and shirks." This theory of taxation has, perhaps, been most completely developed in Massachusetts, where the most interesting discussions have been carried on in the Legislature as to whether the simple device of taxing both land and the mortgages on land really adds to the taxable wealth of the State.

It seems to be admitted that the New England system of taxation does lead to evasion, and in Boston it has long been the custom of wealthy taxpayers to lighten their burdens by moving out of town early in the year, so as to have a legal residence in a town where the rate of taxation is low. Of course this diminishes the tax-list of Boston, and would in some communities probably lead to a suspicion that the law was not altogether what it ought to be. But in New England the view of taxation we have been considering, while it leads to severe condemnation of the "tax-dodger," makes any examination of the causes which produce "tax-dodging" unnecessary. Of course if the Vermonters like their new law no one outside of Vermont need object to it, but it is founded on a view of taxation the spread of which deserves the thoughtful attention of all property-owners.

#### GERMAN RAILWAYS.

ONE of the most important of recent contributions to the literature of the "Railway Problem" is embodied in the official correspondence of the State Department for 1880, being a sketch of the railway history of Germany made by Dr. R. T. Ely, a fellow of Columbia College, at the request of Mr. Andrew D. White, our late Minister at Berlin, and by the latter transmitted to our Government. Dr. Ely, it appears, had spent some three years in studying this and similar questions in Germany. His observations and conclusions are given in the space of fourteen pages of the volume of diplomatic correspondence. Every point relating to the political, military, and economic bearings of the Prussian railways is elucidated in this painstaking and admirable dissertation.

Railway-building commenced in Germany in the year 1835. In 1838 the Prussian monarchy (which was not then allowed to contract debts unless with the consent of the "estates

of the realm," which could not readily be obtained and without which it was impossible to raise money for constructing state-railways) passed what might be called a "general railroad law," which is still in force, fixing the conditions upon which such undertakings might be confided to private enterprise. Some of these conditions might have been adopted with advantage in this country. For instance, all shares subscribed for must be paid in full in cash and the money applied to the work before any borrowing can be done. No loan for construction purposes can be effected without the consent of the Government, which has a right to require a sinking-fund to be established for the liquidation of the debt. Railway tariffs must be conspicuously published, and no change which increases rates can go into effect until six weeks after publication, and no discrimination can be made between persons. When the profits of a railway exceed ten per cent. upon the actual cost the tariff must be reduced. (This provision, by the way, has always been evaded.) At the expiration of thirty years after the opening of any railway the state has the right of purchasing it at a maximum price equal to twenty-five times its average annual dividend during the five preceding years.

Under this law rather more than one-half of the Prussian railways have been built. With the adoption of the Constitution of 1850 the Government acquired the means of constructing railways with its own resources, and it built several roads which were deemed too expensive or too little remunerative for private enterprise, the most important of which was the one extending from Berlin northeastwardly to the Russian frontier. No definite railway policy was adopted by the state, and the two systems—that of private ownership and that of state control—grew side by side until the year 1866, when there were 3,600 kilometres in the former category and 3,300 in the latter. About one-half of the roads operated by the state were held under lease, the other half being owned by the Government. By the political annexations of 1866 the Government came into possession of all the railways owned by the annexed kingdoms and duchies. Nevertheless private enterprise outran the Government until the beginning of 1873, when private companies operated 7,000 kilometres against 5,750 operated by the state. In this year Dr. Lasker made his famous attack upon the Minister of Commerce, Count Itzenplitz, charging corruption in the administration of the general railroad law, whereby "concessions" or charters were granted to certain favorites of the Minister, and especially to Dr. Strousberg, and withheld from others. A protracted investigation was had which substantially sustained Dr. Lasker's charges and led to Count Itzenplitz's resignation. The committee of investigation were charged among other things to enquire how far the intentions of the Government in granting charters to private companies had been fulfilled. Under this head they reported that "railways are public highways resembling in essence and

purpose other highways. The only means of justifying the Government in relinquishing them to private industry and speculation is financial necessity. It appears desirable to transfer to the Empire a controlling power over all German railways."

Nothing was done to carry this recommendation into effect until 1876, when Prince Bismarck brought in a bill in the Prussian Parliament to authorize the Government, if it should desire to do so, to sell all the Prussian state railways, together with the Government's right to acquire the private railways, to the Empire. Inasmuch as the Prussian system is the preponderating railway force in Germany, its acquisition by the Imperial Government would give to the latter a great access of power as against the "Particularists" or State-rights party, who constitute the dominant faction in Bavaria, Württemberg, and Saxony. Prince Bismarck, in advocating the measure, made a speech which would have delighted our Anti-Monopoly League.

The bill was passed by the Prussian Parliament. It remained for the Empire to complete the bargain by purchasing the Prussian railways. The "Particularists" rallied against it in such force that it was never brought before the Reichstag at all. But Bismarck was not deterred by adverse public opinion; he seldom is. He redoubled the exertions of the Government to gain possession of the private railways of the Kingdom, in order to bring against the non-Prussian state railways the powerful competition which the united Prussian system, under a single control, is able to compass. By measures adopted in 1879, partly by purchase and partly by building new lines, the Government became possessed of fifteen thousand kilometres (about ten thousand miles) of railway, or three-fourths of the entire mileage of the Kingdom. It is now in a position to secure the remaining Prussian railways on its own terms, since it can destroy the value of their property by competition.

Prince Bismarck's railroad policy is botomed upon political and military, rather than upon economic, considerations. His leading idea in this, as in all his other large undertakings, is to consolidate the Empire and extinguish the power of the separate states. He has no objection to the existence of courts and thrones at Dresden, Carlsruhe, Munich, and Stuttgart, provided they confine themselves chiefly to parade and dumb show, and leave the essentials of government to Berlin. But railways are a source of real power, and so long as the local governments of Saxony, Bavaria, and Württemberg own the lines within their borders they are of separate consequence in the councils of Europe. Bavaria, for instance, lying between France and Austria, holds a very important key of communication in Central Europe, and one which she is by no means disposed to surrender. Nevertheless, Bismarck's policy, in the opinion of Dr. Ely, will eventually prevail, and the Empire will come into possession of all the German railways it desires to own, though not perhaps in Bismarck's lifetime. The destiny of all French

railways, by the terms of their charters, is to fall into the Government's possession, without money and without price, at the expiration of ninety-nine years after their completion. This contingency operates as a powerful aid to Bismarck's plan for controlling the German railways, since it is deemed necessary to put the Empire on a footing of equality with her most dangerous neighbor.

While economic considerations are not of prime importance in bringing about this great change, they will be by far the most important when it is once effected. The advocates of state-ownership point to many advantages of the system which it is reasonable to suppose may be realized—namely, uniformity of tariffs, non-discrimination as between individuals and localities, the assurance that tariffs shall not be higher than necessary, and shall not be changed without good cause or without sufficient notice, the public satisfaction that must result from knowing that all surplus receipts go into the common treasury, etc. All these things may be realized in a country which has a civil service as rigid and business-like and free from political interference as the New York Clearing-house, and without which the system of government ownership would be as much worse than that of private corporations as the Star-route system of mail transportation is inferior to that of Wells, Fargo & Co.

#### THE REVISED NEW TESTAMENT AND ITS RECEPTION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 12, 1881.

NEARLY two months have passed since the Revised Version of the New Testament appeared, yet there has been comparatively little criticism of it in the press and less appearance of public interest than might have been expected. The sale was, of course, enormous and still continues. In the long run a very considerable effect will be produced upon the religious ideas of ordinary persons. But our people are a slowly moving people; they are sound sleepers; they usually take a long time in rubbing their eyes before they get them well open, and do not for some time see objects clearly. Even when they have read a book and some criticism on it they do not at once make up their minds about it, still less draw all the conclusions which it suggests; and of course those who are most interested in theological questions are not usually those who can give a sound opinion on questions of translation from the Greek. Though every man who pretends to cultivation has learned classics at school or college, few indeed are those (except, of course, members of the teaching profession) who keep up their classical studies in middle life. Not one man out of fifty who takes his degree at our universities (teachers again excepted) reads any Latin once a year; not one in two hundred takes up a Greek book. Even among the clergy, whether Anglican or Nonconformist, the level of scholarship is not high. Hence in discussing the reception which the Revised Version has met with here one must remember that the opinion of scholars is the opinion of a very select body, on which the opinion of the public partly depends, and for the rest is formed entirely from comparing the former or, as we call it, the Authorized Version with this new one.



Scholars are a good deal divided in their judgment. The majority hold that the revisers have done well in taking as the basis of their translation a better Greek text, and are disposed to doubt whether they might not have been even somewhat bolder in their deviations from the received text. There is, indeed, an opposed view—that the *textus receptus* ought to have been adhered to, so that no corrections should be made except in the English version; and the desirability of having one uniform Greek text for all the Protestant world is urged, even though that text should not be the best. But this notion, which would have perpetuated false readings that have been long admitted and obelized, finds little favor. As to the details of the new translation there is, of course, an infinite diversity of view. Some think that renderings have been changed which were substantially right in the old version; others, that passages which needed improvement have been left untouched. For instance, one of our most illustrious public men maintains that if anything ought to have been mended, it was surely the translation of *ψυχικός άνθρωπος* by "natural man" in 1 Cor. ii. 14. A warm controversy rages over the question of "evil," or "the Evil One," in the Lord's Prayer—*i.e.*, whether *τοῦ πονηροῦ* is to be taken as neuter or as masculine. Agreement on such matters was not to be looked for; and no one will deny that the revisers have, as might be expected from the great advances which Greek scholarship has made since King James's days, presented a far more exact expression in English of the meaning of the Greek original than the Authorized Version contains. Probably no translation of any Greek or Latin author can be pointed out in which so much attention has been paid to every shade of sense and turn of phrase. There is really nothing in this new version which can be called an error; even those who disapprove of the decisions at which the translators have arrived in particular passages must admit that there is always much to be said for their view, and that it would be impossible to imagine any work done with more scrupulous care or a more competent skill in the usages of Hellenistic Greek. The question rather is, whether they have not thought too much of accuracy and too little of the effect to be produced on ordinary readers; whether in their anxiety to convey every shade of meaning they have not put too fine a point upon their English and, so to speak, whittled away some of the strength and broad simplicity of the original.

This brings one to consider the sentiments with which the general public has received the translation. Though, as has been already said, England has not yet finally expressed its mind, still the general feeling can hardly be mistaken. It is a feeling not precisely of displeasure, but of discomfort. The traditional phrases which familiarity and the associations of childhood had hallowed have been so modified as to lose their charm. The cadence of the sentences to which the ear had grown so accustomed that they were always read with particular inflexions of the voice has been broken, so that much practice will be needed to get new inflexions that will give equal pleasure. People who have tried the new version by reading it aloud at family worship complain that they are constantly being pulled up and stumbling over small changes in expression which do not seem to them to make any perceptible difference to the meaning. And many individual passages have been indicated where words of Latin origin have been substituted for the Teutonic words of the Authorized Version, giving a sort

of flatness and commonplaceness as well as modernism. The new version, in short, is accused of being less picturesque and more prosaic than the earlier one. Taste is extremely sensitive in these matters, and it cannot be denied that the occasional archaisms of King James's version had the effect of enhancing the dignity of the Bible. They removed it from modern associations; they made people feel the better that it belongs to a remote time; their very peculiarity caused the memory to be more tenacious of them.

It is not altogether easy to estimate the worth of such criticisms, because a great deal must be allowed for the mere aversion to change which all men feel in matters that touch their inmost emotions and most settled habits. Even undoubted improvements are not at first welcome. The Scotch, for instance, regard their metrical version of the Psalms, which seems harsh and bald to Englishmen, with an affection incomprehensible to those who have not learnt it by heart in childhood. When the new version has been in use for fifty years it may well be that many of the alterations which now excite dislike will have been approved of, and that the new cadences will be thought as perfect as the old ones. Still, after making every allowance for these feelings, it may be admitted that the revisers have to some extent misconceived the nature of their task. They have been too much Greek scholars and too little English writers. They have proceeded as if the main thing to be done was to weigh out with precision every ounce of meaning that the Greek text contains. They have not sufficiently remembered, in the first place, that they were dealing with an existing version, which ought not to be altered unless where some distinct and substantial improvement was to be obtained; and, secondly, that the most literal rendering is not necessarily that which best conveys the sense to a reader in another tongue. It is not for professed theologians that a revised version was needed, since they must in any case go to the original and conduct their discussions with reference to its words, comparing the use of the Greek term in one passage with its use in another. The accuracy needed for ordinary readers is different. It is only such an accuracy as may keep them from misconstruing the Scriptures, and drawing from them unwarranted conclusions either of dogma or moral precept. What is wanted is that the meaning should be presented in a broad, plain way, with such simplicity of language as will make it comprehensible to common intelligences, and such force as will enable it to touch the heart and dwell in the memory. The ordinary reader reads to be edified and interested; if the alternative is between a rendering which will impress and stimulate him and another which will best carry to a subtle mind all the finer tinges of thought in the original, the former is rather to be preferred, and certainly the more so if it has already established itself in the affections of the people. Truth, of course, comes first; and if one were forced to choose between the Authorized Version with its occasional serious errors and the Revised Version with those errors removed, but some of the purity and raciness of the style also gone, perhaps it would be necessary to choose the Revised. But would it not, men ask, have been possible for the revisers to expunge those errors while leaving the rest of the translation almost unaltered? Yielding to the natural temptation to make their work as complete and finished as possible, may it not have been that they were not content to stop when

the errors had been struck out? Is not the consequence to be felt in a considerable disturbance of association and an apparent loss of strength in the English New Testament as a whole? It is no secret that the Old Testament revisers, whose labors will not be finished for some three years more, have gone on a different theory, and are altering the phraseology of the English Old Testament as little as possible; in fact, only where it is plain that the present translation is wrong. They have both an easier and a more difficult task: easier, in that the text of the old Hebrew books is better settled than that of the Gospels and Epistles; more difficult, in that it is in many places almost unintelligible, whereas in the New Testament one can always make at least a probable conjecture as to the sense, and has only to choose between more or less plausible renderings.

In the state of public opinion which I have endeavored to describe, it need hardly be said that there is little likelihood of the Revised Version finding its way into official use. So far as I know, none of the more important Nonconformist bodies has adopted it for public worship. Whether a clergyman of the Church of England could now use it in the regular services of his church or not, is a question as to which high legal authorities are not agreed, though the better opinion seems to be that he could not, and that some formal legal authorization by the Crown or by Parliament would be necessary. This will not be given; it is not even talked of as possible. Further reflection and study of the new translation may modify men's views, but at present the proposal to substitute it officially for the old one would encounter the greatest opposition from the general public, and find little support even among scholars. But it would be a great mistake to suppose that the work is therefore a failure and barren of results. Even those who do not like it admit that it is a more valuable contribution to a more perfect translation than any which has yet appeared; that it supplies a basis on which a permanently satisfactory structure may be erected. To the large and increasing class of persons who desire to read the Bible intelligently and teach it in Sunday-schools, but have no knowledge of the original tongues, it is of the utmost service as throwing light on the old version, giving a better idea of the meaning of difficult passages, emancipating them from conventional phrases, and showing them how to apply their minds to make out the connection of a writer's thoughts. It is, so to speak, like a critical edition of the New Testament, prepared by an unprecedentedly capable set of editors, to use and apply which is of itself no small education in critical methods. And in this way it may be expected to give a considerable stimulus to biblical studies among us.

One, more remote, result of the appearance of this new version ought not to be forgotten, though it cannot show itself for some time to come, and has never, that I know, been referred to on this side the Atlantic. It can hardly fail to set men thinking more and more about the origin and authority of the books of which the Bible is made up. Hitherto a great part of our people have practically treated the Authorized Version as if it was an inspired English book. They have known nothing about the variations in the Greek text, nor about the different claims to authority which different books possess. All has been alike to them God's word, and so much God's word that they have constantly founded arguments on words which a reference to the Greek upsets in a moment. This

new translation, which brands as spurious or doubtful passages that stood in the old version; which in many places departs from its rendering and puts a different sense on the Greek; which admits not only that the text is in parts uncertain, but that the true meaning of the text is uncertain, can hardly fail to affect the unquestioning reverence with which the New Testament has been heretofore regarded. Protestants have thought they had no need of an infallible visible church speaking through councils or a pope when they had an infallible book. But what if it be necessary to enquire into the credentials of the book itself, into its date and its claims to bear the name under which it passes, as well as into the purity of its text? All these questions point, as so many other new controversies here point, to a reconstruction of the basis of Protestantism; a process which may not be an easy or a speedy one, and during which some temporary advantages may be gained by other forms of religion, not to speak of the advocates of negation. Yet the willingness which the Presbyterians of Scotland have recently shown, in the case of Prof. Robertson Smith, to consider all questions regarding the origin and history of the Scriptures as fair matter for discussion, shows with how little alarm even ultra Protestants are prepared to enter on this new range of enquiry.

Y.

#### A FRENCH VIEW OF THE TUNISIAN QUESTION.

PARIS, July 8, 1881.

UNDER the Second Empire of Napoleon III. the whole web of diplomacy was spread round the Emperor. He was in the midst of it, like a gigantic spider, ever watching *quem devoret*. The *Kladderadatsch* of Berlin never spoke of him except as *Er*. After every comment upon the questions of the day it used to add, "What thinks *Er*?" Europe has another *Er*. There is not much done without *His* permission; and it must be confessed that the new primate of European politics has more statesmanlike views than his predecessor. The Tunisian affair, which now occupies all Europe, can be traced back to a few conversations held in Berlin during the late Conference and the Congress which had to settle the Eastern Question. Prince Bismarck gave an intimation that, in the general breaking down of the Ottoman Empire, he should have no objection if France seized the Tunisian portion, and thus aggrandized her African empire. Lord Salisbury seems to have viewed this eventuality with the same philosophy, though he has since attempted to add shades and reserves to the formal expression of his opinion.

It is clear that the Tunisian question is not an invention of the day. It has been prepared, and it is no mystery that Germany has given France a sort of *carte blanche* in Africa. There are, of course, many people who think and say that Prince Bismarck, in encouraging the efforts of France in Africa, has no other object than to weaken her—to oblige her to maintain a large army in districts always ready for revolt; that he wishes, also, to create between France and Italy a permanent cause of irritation; that he is not displeased at making the *entente cordiale* between England and France less cordial. In fact, those who pretend themselves the wisest repeat, in melancholy tones,

"Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes."

The Tunisian expedition took everybody by sur-

prise, even the French nation. Nobody was prepared for it. We knew very well that there are always on the frontiers of Algeria some unruly tribes which live by plunder, but the Kroumirs were not, it was felt, the real cause of the war. France had entered on a course which must, sooner or later, conduct her to the annexation of Tunis; but it was not felt necessary to go immediately to Tunis. A railway built between Guelma and Tunis, on Tunisian territory for the greater part, had received, a few years before, the guarantee of a minimum of interest; the Chambers voted this guarantee, and nobody in Europe remonstrated, though such a vote indicated an evident desire to give to French enterprise in Tunis all the help of the French state. France has now great interests in Tunis, and the rivalry between the French and the Italian consuls precipitated matters. The Orientals believe in nothing but force, and when a French general, with his staff, brought to the Bey of Tunis a treaty prepared by M. Roustan, and gave him only a few hours for meditation, the old Bey recognized the necessity of siding with France. He accepted the protectorate which was offered him, and his favorite minister, Mustapha, who was previously so much inclined towards Italy, is now at the Grand Hôtel in Paris, and we can see him every night at some theatre, surrounded by his followers in black coat and fez.

There has been in this Tunisian affair something artificial, which produces on the mind the conviction that the details of it had been arranged beforehand between the parties most interested. Those who were not in the secret are not satisfied; but the silence of the two great Continental empires, Germany and Austria, and the assent of Russia, can make France somewhat indifferent to the daily interrogations which are put in the House of Commons on Tunisian affairs. It can even make France indifferent to the irritation of Italy. The French people have their doubts as to the propriety of indirectly annexing Tunis, they are far from enthusiastic in this matter; they know that the occupation of some parts of Tunis and the introduction of civilization in that part of Africa will involve great difficulties—the history of the Algerian colony is before their eyes. But certainly they cannot be much moved by the protests of a nation which, without having spent a soldier or a shilling in the late Eastern war, took for its share in the final settlement the beautiful island of Cyprus. The safety of the road to India is an argument with which we are all familiar; the safety of our Algerian colony is also an argument: we must protect Algiers, as well as we can, just as England must guard the access to India. In the general disruption of the Ottoman Empire (and England herself has quite sacrificed the cherished Palmerstonian integrity of the Ottoman Empire) we see Bosnia and Herzegovina falling into the hands of Austria, who is already allowed to turn her eyes on Adrianople; Greece, without having made any effort, receives a large territory; Bulgaria becomes an independent state; Cyprus is one pearl more in the necklace which begins at Gibraltar and ends in Egypt. It is not very absurd if France, and, I will add, if Italy, have some share in the redistribution of the territories which once belonged to the Porte.

Italy has only to say a word and she will certainly have the part to which she is entitled by her situation on the Mediterranean Sea. Napoleon I. once said: "I want the Mediterranean to be a French lake." We want it now to be a Spanish,

French, Italian, and Greek lake. Tripoli, which is now in a state of absolute barbarism, would very naturally fall into the hands of Italy. The struggle which took place at Marseilles between the Italian population of the town and the French, on the occasion of the return of some troops from Algiers, is an incident of the perpetual struggle for life and the competition for labor. Piedmontese laborers are frugal, hardy, contented with small pay; they constructed not only all the new forts of our eastern frontier, but also the new forts which surround Strassburg. They are very good navvies, and our contractors employ them everywhere on the new railway lines. The workmen of the port of Marseilles took the first opportunity to vent their bad humor on the industrious Italians who live among them, and who compete with them. I cannot attach much importance to the demonstrations which took place at Palermo, at Turin, at Rome. They were the work of the "Italia irredenta" party, which has no great importance. The Irredentists spoke some time ago very loudly of the province of Trent, but as soon as the Austrian Government desired it they remained perfectly mute on the subject. Italy has become too great a nation to be the instrument of the ambition of a few politicians; she cannot be so unwise as to compromise her situation in Europe without any adequate cause. She is just now making a great loan in order to return to specie payment; in order to destroy the paper which has been her only circulating medium she must find six hundred millions of lire in gold, and lock that gold up in Italy for two years. This gold would have been found in Paris, and a loan was already arranged with the house of Rothschild when the anti-French agitation in Italy prevented the success of the negotiation. The loan is now issued in London, but London must come to the Bank of France in order to get gold; at any rate, if the Bank of France raised the rate of discount the gold would flow to its vaults, and London would find it difficult to provide Italy with gold without much inconvenience to herself. The European markets have been so overloaded with all sorts of new values that a small cause might create a terrible crisis. It is highly probable that the Italians will not choose now to pick a quarrel with France on account of this Tunisian affair; it is more likely that they will enter into negotiations with France on the question of Africa in general, and discuss with her the various eventualities which may arise from the gradual and fatal decomposition of what was once called the Ottoman Empire.

England's anger against France is probably more deep-seated than the anger of Italy. It is the fate of England to be condemned herself to perpetual annexations; and it is her nature not to like in others what she must do herself. However, there are many reasons why England should not follow blindly the dictates of the instinct which makes her look with distrust on all the movements of France. The trade which has sprung up between the two countries has created moral as well as material ties. It seems at times as if England were only too fond of us, and as if her love of France were becoming a sort of mania. French novels seem to her better than English novels, French artists better than English artists; French politics console her advanced Liberals for the defects of her old *parlementarisme*, and where are these advanced Liberals not to be found? It seems at times as if a new spirit had possessed England, and as if she were becoming sick at heart of all the things which once made her so proud. Young



England has not yet destroyed Old England; still, Young England has become so important that it is now a political factor, and Young England, contented with settling the affairs of Egypt in harmony with France, with negotiating with France for a new treaty of commerce, will not play into the hands of Old England for the sake of an old Bey of Tunis, of the port of Biserta, or of Sfax. "Leben und leben lassen" is its motto, as it is the motto of the Viennese. Besides, even Old England will not take any important move so long as the great Fürst von Bismarck keeps his masterly silence, so long as *Er* does not remonstrate with France, and gives her African efforts the support of his sympathy, or even of his indifference.

We must, therefore, expect to see the Tunisian question follow its natural course. The fanaticism of the Ottoman world, which was crushed at Plevna by the Russians, has found an eccentric theatre in the regions which lie at the south of our colony. When autumn comes our troops will have to hunt the insurgents from oasis to oasis. At the present moment war is next to impossible on the frontiers of the great African desert, but the year will not end before a great campaign will be made in Algeria and in Tunis. Such campaigns have always been necessities from time to time; each of them creates new fields for the work of colonization, which is not only a large field for the French, but also for the Spaniards and Italians.

#### GERMAN SYMPATHY FOR PRESIDENT GARFIELD.

BERLIN, July 9, 1881.

It can easily be imagined that the news of the assassination of President Garfield created a most painful sensation all over Germany. It reached the public on Sunday morning, and provoked the utmost consternation in all classes of society. In Berlin there was one cry of indignation. The dangerous condition of the Empress, whose recovery from an operation for hernia was just then very doubtful, fell entirely into the background before the President's cruel fate. The offices of the popular newspapers, such as the *Tageblatt*, *Tribune*, *Volkszeitung*, were besieged by a crowd eager for news, and every symptom of decreasing danger was joyfully hailed.

It is a consoling fact, and a strong proof of the innate goodness of human nature, that in such moments of public disaster all national and party differences fade away, and that for a time, at least, all men form a common brotherhood. So it was on this occasion. Sunday being a fine day I went to a public garden in the afternoon, where President Garfield, of course, formed the engrossing subject of conversation. A great many people did not understand how it could happen that the President of a republic who had been elected by the people should be fired at. Others said that they had had too high an idea of the public spirit of a republic to believe it possible that murder could be resorted to by a dissatisfied office-seeker. The people present all seemed to labor under the impression that the moral standards of a democracy were higher than those of a monarchy. I here again observed that among the lower, as among all half-educated classes, the notion prevails that a republic and absence of oppression are synonymous. The form of government in their eyes is more than the substance. "I thought better of the United States," said an intelligent-looking man in full earnest. "I had intended sending two of

my boys over there, but that fellow Guiteau is no better than Nobiling [the German assassin], and the American people is no better either." I took my seat at a table where several mechanics, in a quite modest and unassuming way, discussed the same all-absorbing question, and came to the conclusion that the spoils system lay at the bottom of the Washington tragedy. "If the Americans do not do away with this infernal principle," said a bright little tailor to his neighbor, "they will go down the more rapidly as their resources develop themselves. In every walk of life," he continued, "man is his own master, and of course chooses whom he considers most competent to help him or to do his business; but in the United States the Government for the benefit of the politicians chooses men as its clerks and officers who have failed in other spheres of life, and are merely rewarded for services rendered in politics, or who have at least not proved that they understand what they are bidden to do." When I asked the man how he could judge so positively of American public matters he replied that he had worked five years in the United States, in New York as well as in Chicago and Dubuque, but that on account of hard times in 1877 he had returned home.

What the tailor knew from his own experience the newspapers almost unanimously stated in their articles commenting on the murder of the President. On the whole, their reasoning was sound and much more to the point than in matters which require solid knowledge of American constitutional law. The journals, however, would perhaps not have been able to judge rightly of the causes lying at the bottom of the attempt, if for the last three months the manoeuvres of Boss Conkling and the question of public patronage had not been so largely dwelt on in the American press. Of the Berlin liberal papers the *Tribune*, the organ of our secessionists, had the best comments upon the attempt—indeed equal to any in the best New York papers. The American editor of that journal, Mr. Loewenthal, was for more than ten years a resident of the city of New York. The *Provincial Correspondence*, on the other hand, the well-known Government organ, tries to make capital out of the crime for its small party purposes.

"This attempt," it says, "proves even to the infatuated of all nations that the so-called liberal and free institutions, even after having found their expression in a republican form of government, form neither a defence nor a shield against any atrocity; and it further proves that similar crimes which have been perpetrated in the monarchical states of Europe cannot be cured by a change of principles underlying the government, nor by granting greater liberties."

As an offset to this it may be said that all over Germany not a single voice has been heard which ventured to excuse the crime, nor has any one expressed the opinion that the form of government can afford protection against wickedness or violence.

Little or nothing can be said of our home politics, since we have entered on the dead season of the summer. The different parties are concentrating their activity on the preparations for the coming elections. Bismarck expects to carry the campaign with the cry, "Help for the poor man!" but the Social-Democrats have rather lost their confidence, if they ever had any, in the uprightness of his aims, for, on the strength of the so-called Socialistic law of 1878, the state of siege has been declared for Leipzig and its neighborhood, and as a consequence thereof eighteen Social-Democratic

leaders have been driven out of that city. Another defeat has been prepared for the Chancellor by his own son, who, in one of the Berlin wards, has made so impertinent and childish a speech that the Liberals instantly ordered half a million copies of the stenographic report to be distributed throughout the country. Young Bismarck, although lately appointed to the position of assistant to his father, is little of a diplomatist. His speech teemed with ignorance of the most notorious facts, and abounded in rough attacks on the character of prominent opponents and of the city government, which, without a shadow of proof, he denominated as corrupt. The young man is a mixture of the overbearing ensign and the ill-educated student.

If you have perhaps heard that the German delegates to the Monetary Conference at Paris had changed their mind in favor of bi-metallism, I can positively inform you that this assertion of Wolff's Telegraphic Bureau is utterly destitute of foundation. People here for a moment were alarmed by this unforeseen news, which, however, by the succeeding mail was discovered to be a manoeuvre of money-brokers and exchange-dealers. On the contrary, Messrs. Von Thielemann and Schraut—the former a very able diplomatist, the latter a thorough master of the subject—in the sessions of the conference of July 2 and 4 referred to their old views without any remark which could be interpreted as being favorable to bi-metallism. Mr. Schraut coincided only in one point with Mr. Dumas, the French delegate's, position—namely, that in order to extend the circulation of silver it was necessary to substitute this metal for the paper denominations below twenty francs. It is very characteristic that the tenor of the official documents is very often just the reverse of the statements of the bi-metallists, who in every way try to distort and confound the real proceedings. Bismarck being indifferent to the whole subject, his subordinates will have their own way in this matter, all the more because, apart from other economical and scientific considerations, about fifty millions of marks have been spent in readjusting our monetary system on the gold basis.

Mr. Evarts's speech before the adjournment of the Conference has reached us through the New York *Herald*, and makes a rather hilarious impression. When a prominent lawyer and experienced statesman like your late Secretary of State makes a sentimental address to the heart and good-will of sober people, he cannot have business reasons for the position he has taken, and rests his case in the conviction that he will be beaten. Mr. Evarts, having gone among the financiers, had in future better follow the advice of Mr. Hansemann, a former very able Prussian Secretary of the Treasury, which is more in keeping with financial transactions and has become a favorite German quotation: "In money matters tenderness of mind ceases" (*In Geldsachen hört die Gemüthlichkeit auf*). And for this reason we Germans will also stick to the gold standard. †††

## Correspondence.

THE INHARMONIOUS VICE-PRESIDENT.  
TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to call attention to the following paragraph, to which the near future may perhaps give still more pertinency. It is from Mr. Gar-

field's preface to the Marquis de Chambrun's 'Executive Power' (written in 1874):

"In discussing the relation of the office of the Vice-President to our system the author notices the fact, which I think has not been elsewhere discussed, that while the office of Vice-President is valuable for the purposes of an election—the candidate being usually selected with a view to supplementing the opinions of the candidate for the Presidency—yet this very fact makes the Vice-President an inharmonious element for the purposes of administration. The author traces to this cause the fact that, whenever our Vice-President has become President, his administration has not been satisfactory to the country. On the whole, the author doubts the value of the office of Vice-President, and says that our example in this particular should not be followed elsewhere."

A. J.

NORWALK, CONN., July 25, 1881.

#### THE MAIN REASON FOR CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While it is true that the late attack upon President Garfield's life is drawing the attention of the country more directly to the necessity of reform in our civil service, it is amusing to observe that even some of our leading papers assume as the principal reason for this reform the added protection to the person of the Executive to result therefrom, ignoring the many advantages which overshadow this in importance. The careful preparation of youths destined to occupy positions of command in the naval and military services of the Government is so generally admitted to be needful, that any measure looking to the abolition of the training-schools would be strenuously opposed by public opinion, which, however, views with apparent indifference the selection of persons unfitted by previous technical training for offices involving duties more constant and important. The hope of radical reform in this quarter has been so often disappointed, the efforts of the declared friends of an improved civil service in Congress so faint-hearted and transitory, that every lover of his country may well prepare himself to see a continuance of the mortifying spoils system, despite the passing protest induced by the attempted assassination.

H. W. T.

NEW ORLEANS, July 16, 1881.

#### GUITEAU A REPUBLICAN FANATIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me that the fact that Guiteau was an applicant for an office before he shot the President has little or nothing to do with our civil-service methods. There is little or nothing to show that his failure to obtain an appointment made him an assassin. And when we remember that since the days of Andrew Jackson there have been every four years a hundred thousand disappointed office-seekers, we should ask something better than newspaper clairvoyance in pointing out Guiteau's motive.

Now, Guiteau himself says that he shot the President in order to unite the Republican party; and we submit that there is nothing to make this at all improbable. The assassin belongs to a class of monomaniacs, and it is not a small class, who believe that patriotism and support of the Republican party, if not synonymous terms, are always found united; who think that no man who votes the Republican ticket can be a very bad or a very dangerous man, and that the man who does not cannot be either a good or a safe man. Such a man, who thought the President wrong in his fight with Conk-

ling and that the Republican party was in danger, would regard the death of the President as a great blessing to the country; and such a man was Guiteau.

The civil service has enough to answer for, but with all its begettings it did not beget Guiteau.—Yours, etc.,

B. M. T.

EAST SAGINAW, MICH., July 20, 1881.

#### AN ANNUAL REPORT FROM YALE WANTED

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last issue but one of your paper you give voice to what is, I am sure, the wish of a great many graduates of Yale—namely, that their Alma Mater should let them know every year how she stands pecuniarily, and what changes she has made in discipline and instruction. The New England college of twenty or thirty years ago was a poor dead-and-alive place, devoid of enthusiasm; a place where the best students were not allowed to get along any faster than the worst could be forced to do. We want to know for certain what colleges no longer deserve this reproach before we make choice of a college for our sons, and we want to know how the funds of our own Alma Mater are invested and expended before we subscribe to increase them. There are, to be sure, New England colleges which have a good deal to conceal. There is one in which recently the trustees swelled the total of the Freshman class by admitting a number of candidates whom the Faculty had rejected for deficiency of scholarship. But Yale is certainly not to be classed with these. The Yale catalogue is sent every year to its graduates, but it contains at present very little but names of men and of text-books, which nobody cares about. It might well contain information of various sorts which the parents of students and the constituency of the corporation have a right to demand. What are the regulations for the government of students? Is it the policy of the college to employ as tutors men who are going to teach and study all their lives, or does it advocate rotation in office and the continual infusion of fresh blood into the lower (*i. e.*, the more fundamental and important) arteries of instruction? Are tutors appointed to teach each his specialty, or do they accept office and then first learn to what department they are assigned? Are there advanced sections for the more competent students? Do members of different college classes recite together? May a student question his instructor during the hour on doubtful points which arise, or is he forbidden (as I was) to ask anything until the class is dismissed?

I have myself made personal enquiry and am able to answer one or two of these questions. Tutors are still appointed "maids of all work," and the junior tutor teaches what is left after his seniors have had their pick among Greek, Latin, and Mathematics. If this seems incredible, it must be remembered that, according to Hillebrand—whose book, however, I have not at hand—even professors of law in France do not know what part of the law they are to lecture upon, until a specialty has been assigned them by their superiors. Furthermore, there are advanced sections, and seniors and juniors are sometimes found on the same benches at recitation. As not one graduate in a hundred knows these things I venture to publish them here. But I wish I could find out whether a student may go out sailing now without asking the president, . . . and a great many other things. I infer from the silence of the catalogue that a Fresh-

man who has been over the Freshman mathematics at school must still, as in 1852 or 1853, take them all over again with his class.

Men or boys who have been together a long time will be pretty certain to feel an affection, which scoffers will, perhaps, call sentimental, for what kept them together, it makes no difference whether this was a college or a man-of-war, an Arctic expedition, a boarding-house, or a secret society. There is plenty of such affection expressed at the alumni or class-meetings of every college in the Union, and everybody present enjoys it and sympathizes with it. But the familiar enthusiasm for "old" Brown, or Yale, or Williams, or Wesleyan is neither a measure of the real worth and significance of these institutions at present, nor a measure of the pecuniary aid which these same graduates, who cheer so loudly, will grant when called upon. Neither will a thoughtful man send his son to the college he becomes so enthusiastic about when he revisits it, unless there is no better college to be had. Now, the presumption is that the college which is most willing to tell all it does, to take its alumni and the public into its confidence, is the best college. Such a course provokes controversy, but on the one hand controversy is the best of advertisements, and on the other it is only by letting us know what the college is to-day that we can retain any other than a sentimental regard for it.

Last commencement a pamphlet with the following title was distributed in New Haven: "Yale College in 1881. Some Statements Respecting the late Progress and Present Condition of the various Departments of the University for the Information of its Graduates, Friends, and Benefactors. By the Executive Committee of the Society of the Alumni." I am sorry to say this pamphlet belies its title. In the first place, it is not written by the Executive Committee of the Alumni at all, but by members of the different faculties, who remain anonymous. Neither is there any editor named, nor is any editor, in fact, responsible to the Committee of the Alumni and the public for the whole. The definiteness, detail, and novelty of its statements, and the literary skill and logic which characterize it, are sufficiently illustrated by the following extracts, with which I conclude my long letter:

"It is believed, too, that the general love of good scholarship has been well maintained by the students, among whom, to their credit be it said, good scholarship and the achievement of success in any field of science or literature has [*sic*] always [!] commanded the highest respect."

"It would not be proper in this pamphlet to pass any compliments on our colleagues, but this may at least be said, that the students of this college have never enjoyed better opportunities of instruction than they do now."

"We may congratulate ourselves on the truth of the foregoing statements. A college is primarily a place of education; and if students of a right spirit assemble in satisfactory numbers, and there is a sufficient force of competent and laborious instructors to ensure their right intellectual activity in the acquisition of knowledge and discipline, the conditions of substantial success are met. Large pecuniary endowments are not indispensable to a high degree of prosperity. To prove this we need only look at the record which Yale College made during its first hundred and thirty years—a record of which every Yale graduate is proud. . . . On the other hand, the history of the next half century, which ends with the present year, illustrates strikingly the power of pecuniary endowments to stimulate and promote the stable growth and productiveness of such an institution. . . . The bequests do not all immediately mature; but the certainty of future endowments, no matter how far off the pos-



session may be, is a ground of confidence which is only inferior to actual possession."

"It would . . . be well for the citizens of Connecticut to see to it that there be no decline of the higher education within her borders. We trust that they are not alarmed at the indications of a tendency towards a too liberal policy on the part of the clerical members of the Corporation of the college. It cannot be denied that, as the generations have passed, these successors of the Congregational divines who founded the college have introduced great changes in liberal directions. They have themselves opened the door by which no less than eight men of other Christian denominations, or of no denomination whatever, may enter their small corporate body; they have ceased to require the officers of the college to subscribe to the Saybrook Platform; and at the present moment they have, by their own appointment, no less than fourteen professors holding offices of instruction and government in the college, who are not Congregationalists nor Presbyterians, but are connected with other Christian denominations; and what is a more serious matter still, they permit these non-Congregational professors to have more to do with the selection of new professors, as vacancies occur or new professorships are established, than they themselves have.

"We commend these facts to the consideration of those whose minds are in any degree exercised on this general subject.

"But it is to be hoped that the constitution of the Board of Corporators will suffer no further change; for so much of unity as the clerical portion of the Board still have in being connected with one denomination is believed to be the best means of securing the management of the college in the quiet spirit of a just Christian liberality. We do not share the fear that under their care the college will cease to be a Christian college. For so long as the great English universities, after which we were modelled, maintain their distinctively Christian character and call their undergraduates to daily worship, so long as our own houses of legislation and our courts of justice are opened with prayer, so long as our soldiers, in the field and in their barracks, although of mature years, must obey the roll-call of their chaplain, and our marines are piped down to prayers, so long, at least, we doubt not, our Corporators will find it proper that the undergraduates of such a college as this should be called together to worship God and to crave His gracious blessing on their daily life."

"The various courses undergo every year the modifications and improvements suggested by observation and experience which the means at the disposal of the Governing Board [of the Scientific School] allow them to make. . . . They feel a certain degree of pride in the knowledge that no other Scientific School in the country, however ample its means, ventures to claim that the instruction furnished by it is superior, even if equal, to that imparted here, or that the results it accomplishes are more valuable than those accomplished by this institution with its comparatively scanty revenues."

Yours truly, A GRADUATE.

YORK HARBOR, MAINE, July 18, 1881.

#### NAMES OF THE "BLUE-WATER" INDIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The proper name of a small tribe of Indians who have lived for time out of mind in this Territory, in Cataract Cañon, near the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, without attracting much attention, seems likely to come into question, now that a reservation of land for their exclusive use and benefit has been declared and defined by the United States. The name by which these Indians are known, as far as they are known at all, has no fixed orthography, and of its derivation and signification probably few persons are aware. It is commonly written "Yavai Supai" or "Yava-Supai," or the same without the hyphen and capitalization of the fol-

lowing letter; the plural in any case being formed by adding "s." As I hear it spoken, both by the Indians themselves and by an interpreter, the final syllable, "-pai" or "-pais," is often or usually dropped, the remainder of the term being sounded "Yavazu," or "Havazu," or "Avazu." On some maps the name is printed "Suppai," omitting the most characteristic part and needlessly duplicating a letter. The phonetic rendering of the word in conversation gives the clue to its meaning and derivation. Literally translated into English, "Yavazu" is "blue water," the stream flowing through Cataract Cañon showing that color perceptibly. Notwithstanding the great arbitrary transliteration the word really differs little in sound from the Spanish *Agua azul*, from which it is thus evidently derived, with modification of the initial impulse of the breath, softening of "g" into "v" or "w," and elision of the final "l." To the Spanish word thus corrupted has been suffixed a native term, "pai" or "pais," of very frequent occurrence in the languages of Arizona Indians, said to mean all or every—the sum or totality of anything; and thus, in its application to persons, a whole tribe, or "the people" collectively or generically. In this view, "Yavai-Supai" signifies "all those of the blue water," or, more simply, "Blue-Water Indians."

The emended orthography "Aguazulpai" or "Aguazul" may be suggested and recommended for usage, as being phonetically near enough to the fluctuating corruption to prevent misunderstanding, while it is more elegant, and has the decided additional advantage of preserving and displaying the true etymon.

Yours truly, ELLIOTT COUES.

"SUPPAI SETTLEMENT," ARIZONA, June 20, 1881.

#### CAMPBELLITES ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When "intelligent people" (of whom certainly Mr. Tomlins is one, *vide* the *Nation* of July 21) come to understand the position of those Christians who refuse to be called "Campbellites," or by any other human name, they will find that this is not because they claim to be the *only* Christians, but because they refuse to be anything else than Christians. They freely and gladly allow that there are many Christians in the various other sects, Protestant and otherwise, but they hold, which goes without saying, that this could not be unless these sects, differing so widely among themselves, had added somewhat that is not essentially Christian. That is to say, they are Christians not because of their peculiarities but in spite of them.

And it is certainly the part of courtesy to allow a people to announce to the world that they are trying to follow only Christ, and that they are trying to be neither more nor less than Christians. Surely it is nothing against their sincerity that they can claim a separate organized existence of little more than fifty years. And since an appeal has been made to facts, let it be distinctly stated that this "organized" existence was not by their own will, but because other denominations refused to be *simply* Christian. The ground on which a man calls himself by that name is not that he can trace his spiritual genealogy back to Pentecost through an unbroken line of human spiritual progenitors, but that he is now a personal and practical believer in Christ. The same is true of a church.

M. J. FERGUSON.

DANBURY, CT., July 25, 1881.

#### ENGLISH OPPRESSION IN JAPAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has recently been called to the letters of two correspondents in a late number of the *Pall Mall Budget*, in which one honest fellow stands aghast at the frightful picture of English oppression in Japan as revealed by Mr. House in his article entitled "The Martyrdom of an Empire" in the May number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. A few such enquiries as his, if properly responded to, might arouse the English people to some course of just action, or at least to some sense of shame at the deplorable results of their Government's policy in Japan. Unhappily, however, the second correspondent replies by denying every one of the charges of Mr. House as not only false but utterly absurd, and refers to the Blue-Books. At the time, neither of these correspondents had seen an article in the *International Review* by a Japanese student, Mr. Mitsukuri, wherein attention is called to precisely the same points made by Mr. House.

The second correspondent signs himself "An Eight-Years Resident in Japan." Surely in that time he should have seen the broad and generous acts of the British minister in helping, with a patient and Christian spirit, the efforts of a brave and gentle people who, having been forced to come into the company of Christian nations, were doing all they could to fit themselves for this high honor! And furthermore, this "Eight-Years Resident" must have recorded the prompt severity with which the British minister rebuked the English press at Yokohama for their hostile and defamatory criticisms of the Japanese Government. It is true one might reside for eight years among the Ainos of Yezo without being able to note these things. One has a right to challenge this "Eight-Years Resident" as to whether he is a competent witness. He hails from Lincoln's Inn. It is a singular coincidence that another "Eight-Years Resident" hails from the same place; and this one, at a recent meeting of the Anthropological Society of London, in discussing Mr. E. B. Tylor's interesting communication on the early use of the plough, did not remember having seen the plough used in Japan, where ploughs of several different types are in common use from Idsu to Satsuma. He also attempted a review of an archaeological work published by the University of Tokio, and a Japanese student in London called attention to his blunders in Japanese history, while a correspondent in the *Japan Mail*, an English paper published in Yokohama, rebuked him for his many mistakes, and ended by saying that he was "criticising a work on a subject of which he evidently knew little, if anything."

Any attempt to present a picture of English oppression in the East is sure to be thwarted by such apparently authoritative letters as that of the "Eight-Years Resident," who, if he remained thrice eight years, would probably show the same inscrutable blindness to the injustice and oppression which have always characterized English policy there, defended at the same time by a brace of English journals which have never lost an opportunity to malign the Japanese or defame their country. In the meantime, Japan suffers at the hands of a nation that should now be foremost in her efforts to repair the almost irreparable injuries inflicted by her on a patient and inoffensive people.

E. S. M.

SALEM, MASS., July 21, 1881.

## Notes.

J. E. POTTER & CO., Philadelphia, have in press and will shortly issue a work on French Syntax, founded upon Eduard Mätzner's, by James A. Harrison, Professor of Modern Languages in Washington and Lee University.—A. S. Barnes & Co. announce that a second edition of Mr. Kwong Ki Chiu's remarkable 'English Phrase-Book' has already been called for.—There is no end to the variety of editions of the revised New Testament. Fords, Howard & Hulbert have brought out what they call the American version—i.e., the readings preferred by the American Committee have been incorporated with the text, the English readings relegated to the margin. I. K. Funk & Co. are preparing a teachers' edition, of which the chief feature is the printing in full in the margin of the parallel passages only referred to in the Bagster and other Bibles.—Mr. John Austin Stevens's illustrated 'Yorktown Centennial Hand-book' gives the history, rather summarily, of the Pennsylvania Campaign of 1781, with biographical notices of the chief French officers; the proceedings of Congress consequent upon Cornwallis's surrender; particulars of the movement to celebrate the laying of the monumental corner-stone next October; and a short account of the Peninsula campaign during the civil war. This is succeeded by a topographical guide to the York Peninsula, to Norfolk, Richmond, etc. More abundant and better-printed maps might have been looked for; and it is a pity that Mr. Johnston's account of the Cornwallis siege, in the current *Scribner's*, could not have been obtained for this Hand-book.—The latest of the "Personal Narratives of Events in the War of the Rebellion" published by the Soldiers and Sailors' Historical Society of Rhode Island is also one of the very best, and pertains to one of the most important and memorable engagements—the battle of Chancellorsville. The author is Horatio Rogers, late Colonel 2d R. I. Volunteers.—Vol. ii., No. 6, of the *Journal of the Military Service Institution of the U. S.* consists of three essays on "Our Indian Question," the first being the prize essay by Brevet Major-General John Gibbon, for which a gold medal was awarded. The subject of the next competition is, "The important improvements in the Art of War during the past twenty years, and their probable effect on future military operations." Essays must be sent in triplicate to the Secretary, Governor's Island, N. Y. Harbor, on or before Nov. 1, 1881.—The annual report of the operations of the Engineers' Department of the District of Columbia for the year ending June 30, 1880, has just been issued from the Government Printing-Office. Lt. R. L. Hoxie treats of sewage and water-supply; Lt. F. V. Greene of streets. The latter officer accompanies his report with a fine topographical map of the District, and with twelve statistical colored maps, which may well serve as a model to our city ediles everywhere. The first shows the valuation of real property, with its centre at the junction of Pennsylvania and Louisiana avenues; No. 2, street grades by contour lines; No. 3, varieties of street pavement, the wretched wooden pavement still covering nearly 17 miles; No. 4, varieties of shade-trees, 21,150 being maples out of a total 53,050, extending 120.4 miles; No. 5, gas-lamps, 4,826, or 112.38 miles; No. 6, water-mains, 175.37 miles; No. 7, sewers; No. 8, public schools; No. 9, police and fire stations; No. 10,

telegraph lines and companies; No. 12, street-sweeping—daily only on Pennsylvania avenue from the White House to the Capitol.—The author of "The Student's Dream," who may be addressed care of F. Leypoldt, 13 Park Row, offers a prize of \$500 for an essay confuting the theory of that work, viz., that "all phenomena are explained by motion."—The Lisbon correspondent of the *Athenæum* announces that the African travels of the some-time companions of Serpa Pinto, Capello and Ivens, are about to be published in many languages, under the title, "De Benguela ás Terras de Jácça," etc. The causes of this estrangement from the hero of the "King's Rifle" will probably now come to light.—It used to be mentioned as somewhat remarkable that 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' had been translated into Armenian. In these latter days versions into "outlandish" languages are becoming common. The latest announced is Bluntschli's "Völkerrecht," which has been rendered from Lardy's French version into Chinese and published at Peking, and the same writer's "Lehre von dem modernen Staat," translated by a Japanese who had studied at Heidelberg, and printed at Tokio in Japanese character but European book-form.—Both the *Revue politique et littéraire* and the *Revue scientifique*, published weekly in Paris by Germer Baillière et Cie., were founded in 1863. On the first of January, 1881, twenty-six volumes of each review had appeared, or fifty-two of the two together; and to these fifty-two volumes a topical index has just been prepared and published at the low price of twelve cents. Some of the best work of M. Scherer, M. Sarcey, M. Charles Bigot, M. Renan, M. Pressensé, and other important French authors has first appeared in the *Revue politique et littéraire*. It has recently begun the publication of short stories, chief among which have been the "Vieux Portraits" of Turgeneff.—M. Scherer has recently contributed to several numbers of the *Temps* an elaborate study of Wordsworth.

—"The Indians, with that fine occasional instinct which is in such odd contrast to other of their characteristics, gave the place [Rhode Island] its pretty name. Aquidneck, the Isle of Peace, they called it." So writes "Susan Coolidge" in the opening paper (on Newport) of the August *Scribner*. By "fine occasional instinct" we suppose is meant a departure from the habitual formation of Algonkin place-names with reference to topography, history, a natural product, the animals of the neighborhood, or "position, or direction from places previously known." These are the only categories allowed by Dr. Trumbull, and there is not room under any one of them for an abstract conception like "Isle of Peace." Moreover, the same authority identifies *Quidnic* and *Aquidaneck* with a compound meaning "place at the end of the hill," or possibly "place beyond the hill." This difference among the interpreters detracts in nowise from the readable and other good qualities of the paper in question, in which the title is not maintained as a thesis, and which is charmingly illustrated. A writer new to us, Mary G. Loring, gossips with noticeable cleverness about the Normandy watering-place of Etretat. Professor Thurston furnishes a discriminating introduction to a letter of Robert Fulton's to Jefferson, relating, with the aid of diagrams, the former's experiments in submarine gunnery for a floating battery—a sort of forerunner of Ericsson's latest contrivance in the same direction. This document, never before published, is printed verbatim, and possesses a high degree of interest. "Uncle Remus" ends his rainy day to the regret

of others besides "the little boy." While the fables of the evening perhaps fall below those of the earlier part of the day, the colloquial scaffolding of the story-teller extorts renewed admiration. In a first paper on "Poetry in America" Mr. Stedman clears the ground for an explanation of the sudden appearance of the group of poets, now veterans or departed, who ushered in "the first period of what may be called, for want of a better term, a true American school"—to wit: Longfellow, Poe, Whittier, Emerson, Lowell, Whitman, "and others." This involves, of course, a consideration of the obstacles to the cultivation of poetry during the first two centuries of the settlement of the now United States, as well as of the more recent limitations which have closed one period before the next has opened—at least with anything like the *éclat* and promise of the earlier.

—Mr. Albert Stickney, in his second paper on "The People's Problem," outlines his scheme of political reform, which may be briefly described as a reduction of electoral districts to the manageable size of a town-meeting, for the conduct of local affairs and for the election of delegates to sundry electoral conventions. "The delegates thus chosen to an electoral convention would in their turn meet as one body, at one time and place, and would elect the mayor, or member of the State legislature, or governor, or presidential elector, or representative to Congress." It might and probably would be found necessary to have intermediate conventions "to choose the members of the final electoral convention, which should elect the officer himself." The chief executive of the city, State, or nation, and the legislators, State and national, alone should be elective. The executive should be charged with the responsibility of appointing heads of department, each officer having the appointment and removal of his own immediate subordinates. A two-thirds vote of the legislature would, according to Mr. Stickney, check the abuse of this power at its source by summary removal. In his next and final paper he will indicate a way for putting his system into effect.

—An anonymous paper on "The Pension Office" in the August *Lippincott's* belongs to not the least useful class of magazine articles. The descriptive portion of it, giving the peculiarities of the office and of the law under which it operates, is of quite as much value as its recommendations, so far as the general reader may judge of these on the face of the article; and they excite regret that the writer, who is an ardent friend of the office, should not have lent them the weight of his name. In "The New York Fresh-Air Fund" Mr. P. G. Hubert, Jr., relates the origin and successful execution of the charity with which readers of the *Evening Post* have long been familiar. One anecdote of several which Mr. Hubert has collected is worth quoting. An urchin who did full justice to the breakfast provided for his party remarked that he enjoyed it hugely, but criticised the untimeliness of the meal. It appeared that one meal a day was the rule of his experience, and his surprise and satisfaction at dinner were redoubled at supper. "His last direction to his neighbor in the next crib, as he fell asleep that night, was, 'Wake me if they sets that table again in the night.'" Dr. Oswald writes about "Secretiveness" in his popular series, "Zoölogical Curiosities," and an analogous paper on "The Home of the Giant Squid" (the Newfoundland Banks) is readable. The same can scarcely be said of the rest of the number, which is mainly made up of that kind of light reading



which, unless one is in the mood for it, seems particularly heavy. "Housekeeping in North Carolina" ought, perhaps, to be excepted as a brief narrative of personal experience dealing with the habits and manners of the blacks of the region, though it is hardly more than a fragment of the story of shiftlessness and loose morality, several chapters of which we have had lately. The serial "Craque O' Doom" concludes in an anti-climax of disagreeable and sentimental absurdity, and is to be followed next month by the first instalment of a story by "Sherwood Bonner," which will perforce be a pleasant substitute, and probably of merit in itself, judging from some of the author's previous performances. The "short stories" and poetry of the number amount to very little.

—Mr. George W. Julian's *Reminiscences* (of the Thirty-first Congress), which begin the *International Review* for August, are interesting, as all retrospect of the sort must be, for their personal quality, and of more or less historical value; and though the time concerned has, of course, been pretty thoroughly gone over heretofore, we cannot have too much about it. Until our history comes to be written, at least, the more material of this kind that accumulates for the writing of it the better. Mr. Charles F. Thwing narrates and accounts for the steady decline of "College Graduates in the Ministry." This year the proportion is less than ever—nine per cent. at Yale, and less than two per cent. at Harvard, for example. The chief causes assigned are the growing demand of a wealthy country for educated men in all pursuits, and the prevalent scepticism, the ranks of the clergy being only recruited when creeds are generally stable. "An American Bonaparte" is one of Mr. Eugene L. Didier's articles on the Bonaparte-Patterson literature. Mr. Waldorf H. Phillips, in "The Divorce Question," recounts some of the enormities inevitable under the present system, or rather lack of system, and prescribes a Congressional enactment providing for the recognition by every other State of all regular divorce proceedings in any State, or else a constitutional amendment prohibiting the granting of a divorce "when both parties are not within the actual jurisdiction of the court, except by the court of the State where the marriage was contracted or consummated." "Why Ireland has been misgoverned" is explained by "A Celt," as perhaps the reader would have divined unassisted. "Some Curiosities in Horological Reckoning," by W. F. Maffin, has the interest, at least, of curiosity, and contains a practical suggestion for making the value of hours absolute instead of, as now, merely relative. The article of the number, however, is Mr. Wasson's discussion of "Rights," a philosophical and political study eminently deserving of being read by advocates of "natural" rights, as opposed to rights deducible from and dependent on duties. The fact that Mr. Wasson pushes his argument into the realm of logical speculation does not conflict with its value as an examination of the testimony of consciousness on the subject.

—Among the multitudes of subjects whose investigation has been undertaken by the Census is that of the ownership of the United States registered bonds. A bulletin giving a summary of its character and distribution, by Robert P. Porter, has just been issued by the Census Office. The status of ownership was taken at the date of the payment of interest nearest to the census day—i.e., in the case of the 4 per cents, July, 1880; of the

4½ per cents, June, 1880; of the 5 per cents, August, 1880; of the 6 per cents, July, 1880. The total amount of registered bonds at these dates was \$1,173,749,250. Of this amount, \$528,100,950 were 4 per cents, \$170,280,800 were 4½ per cents, \$294,440,800 were 5 per cents, and \$180,926,700 were 6 per cents. Omitting the 6 per cents, the interest on which was payable in the ten principal cities only, there is left a total of \$992,822,550. Of this amount, \$644,990,400 was held by individuals and corporations, \$27,894,350 in foreign countries, and \$319,937,800 by national banks to secure their circulation. The total number of holders of 4, 4½, and 5 per cent. registered bonds was 73,114, owning, as above, \$644,990,400. Of these, 1,527 were corporations, holding \$227,451,550, or 35.26 per cent. The male holders numbered 42,262, owning \$327,185,500, an average of \$7,741.84, while the female holders numbered 29,325, owning \$90,353,350, with an average of \$3,081.10. The following table shows the number of holders and amounts held by individuals, classified by the amounts of individual holdings:

Classes.	Male holders.	Amount held by males.	Female holders.	Amount held by females.
Amounts exceeding \$50,000.....	830	\$176,229,350	168	\$23,344,000
\$25,000 to \$50,000.....	1,018	38,668,100	281	10,747,850
\$10,000 to \$25,000.....	2,325	38,861,750	953	15,395,600
\$5,000 to \$10,000.....	3,416	270,090,500	1,571	12,235,400
\$2,500 to \$5,000.....	5,499	21,495,300	2,851	11,018,950
\$1,000 to \$2,500.....	7,595	13,402,300	4,871	8,532,850
\$500 to \$1,000.....	8,368	7,449,750	6,372	5,591,100
\$50 to \$500.....	13,309	4,067,050	12,248	3,472,700

From the above table it appears that nearly one-half of the total amount of that held by individuals was owned by about 1,000 persons, and that 2,200 persons owned nearly 60 per cent., while 4,500 persons owned fully 70 per cent.

—Examining the geographical distribution of the bonds and their holders it is seen that New England contained no less than 36 per cent. of the holders, but only 11 per cent. of the amount of the bonds; the Middle States 42 and 43 per cent. respectively; the Southern States but 3½ per cent. of the holders and 2 per cent. of the bonds; while in the West resided 15 per cent. of the holders, owning 8 per cent. of the bonds. The corporations, numbering but 2 per cent. of the holders, owned not less than 35 per cent. of the amount. Of the States severally Massachusetts takes precedence in the number of holders, followed in order by New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois, and ending with Oregon. Considering the number of holders with relation to the population, the series is quite different. It commences with the District of Columbia, which, out of 100,000 population, has 1,320 holders. Then follows Massachusetts, with 950, and the other New England States, interrupted only by New York, which enters above Maine. The Middle Atlantic, as a rule, follow next, while the Southern States are near the end of the list. In respect to amounts held, again, the order is quite different from either of the above. New York comes first, followed by Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, District of Columbia, etc., ending, as before, with Oregon. Out of the total number of individual holders 50 per cent., owning 77 per cent. of the bonds, reside in 117 of the principal cities of the country, the remainder being owned in the smaller towns and the rural districts.

—The above notes and tables show, 1st, that the great mass of the registered bonds are held in the northeastern part of the country, in New England and the so-called Middle States; and 2d, that they

are by no means "popular loans" (meaning by that term that they are held in small amounts by large numbers of the people), since, on an average, there is but 1 holder in 700 of the population. But in another sense they are popular loans. Large quantities of these bonds are in the possession of banks, savings institutions, insurance companies, etc., which hold them as investments, and through them large numbers of people are directly interested in them—as is estimated, about one in five of our whole population.

—Near a fortnight ago it was reported that Professor Stone and his assistant, of the observatory at Cincinnati, saw the comet "separate before their eyes, forming a double comet." This remarkable phenomenon has not been confirmed with better instruments elsewhere. It is well known that Biela's comet did separate, but no observer actually saw the process, which, it is safe to say, must have been very gradual. As the present comet describes more and more of its arc of visibility, it becomes certain that it cannot be a return of the great comet of 1807. This object has yielded unparalleled opportunity for research on the physical constitution of comets: it has been abundantly photographed by Draper and Common, and a series of drawings has been made by Holden; a thorough optical examination of the comet's spectrum has been made by Young, Harkness, and Pickering; the spectrum has been photographed by Draper and Huggins; the light of different parts of the comet has been photometrically determined by Pickering, the results being expressed in stellar magnitudes on Pogson's logarithmic scale, showing the comet to be of the seventh magnitude very near the nucleus, and the tail at four degrees from the nucleus to be of the 11.6 magnitude; and, lastly, the polarization of the comet's light has been observed by Wright, establishing the fact that the light emitted by the tail is polarized rather strongly in a plane passing through the sun's place, the percentages indicating that reflected sunlight constitutes the greater part of the light of the tail. Early last week the discovery of a fairly bright telescopic comet, 1881 (c), was reported by Schaeberle, of Ann Arbor. Professor Swift has already seen it with the unassisted eye, and says it has a tail one degree long. It will increase in brilliancy very rapidly until after the perihelion passage (which occurs about August 18). We may, therefore, expect a very conspicuous object, as it will be nearest the earth a day or two after its perihelion passage, and will be visible in a moonless sky. It is early yet to say certainly whether the comet has ever been seen before. Some astronomers surmise its identity with the comet of 1337, observed in Europe and in China, and visible three or four months. But the elements of the best orbit yet computed—that by Mr. S. C. Chandler, Jr., of Cambridge—bear no special resemblance to those of any known comet.

#### TROLLOPE'S CICERO.

*The Life of Cicero.* By Anthony Trollope. New York: Harper & Bros. 2 vols. 1881.

LORD MACAULAY, in his essay on "History," alludes to Scott as having skillfully "used those fragments of truth which historians have scornfully thrown behind them," and adds that "a truly great historian would reclaim those materials which the novelist has appropriated," and that the perfect historian for whom we wait will possess many of the qualities of the novelist. The essayist him-

self, in his 'History of England,' though certainly not a perfect historian, did nevertheless carry into execution in a most brilliant manner this part of the historian's work which he here describes; and it is certain that this essay, and his own practice built upon it, have formed an epoch in historical literature. Mr. Motley no doubt owed some of his success as an historian to his having tried his 'prentice hand at novel-writing; and one of the most interesting of recent works in this field is the 'History of Our Own Times,' written by the novelist Justin McCarthy.

It is, therefore, no intrusion when a novelist like Mr. Trollope appears in the ranks of the historians—especially a novelist so distinguished for simplicity and truthfulness of delineation. It is a satisfaction, too, to find him in the field of ancient history. The Greeks and Romans seem at an immeasurable distance from us, not so much because of their distance in time as because of the difference in religion, and still more, perhaps, the wide contrast in the details of life—the house, the food, the dress, etc. So there is a certain unreality about them which the most picturesque historians have not been able to dispel. Even Mr. Froude's 'Cæsar' is the life of a person belonging to a different world from us. But Mr. Trollope has succeeded in giving to his narrative a remarkable degree of actuality, and making the men and women of Cicero's time more real, we are inclined to think, than any historian of antiquity has done. This is an excellence for which we should be willing to barter a large share of special scholarship. Mr. Trollope is not a philologist by profession, and there are many details of classical antiquities which he cannot be expected to know, though he is a well-trained scholar of the English pattern, with a genuine English comprehension of practical life and practical politics. For example, it is a singular misconception to speak of "the Bona Dea, or goddess Cybele" (vol. i. p. 255); for although the "Great Mother" of Pessinus embodies the same religious conception as the Roman goddess, and there was considerable analogy in the mystic rites of the two, yet they had a totally distinct cult, one being entirely foreign, the other purely native. Again, it is a mistake to say (vol. ii. p. 29) that in regard to prætorian provinces "the people had the right of voting." Neither does the author appear fully to appreciate (vol. i. p. 188) the fundamental change made by Sulla in the character of the executive offices: he speaks as if the consuls ceased to take actual command of armies because of the distance of the wars, whereas it was the result of the formal withdrawal from them of the *imperium militiæ*, the extension of the bounds of the city so as to embrace the whole of Italy, and the confinement of the magistrates of the year within these limits.

But, after all, there is very little even in the line of antiquities to which exception need be taken, and as a vivid, picturesque life of a great man, this deserves to rank high. It is not, however, a mere biography, nor is it simply as an accurate picture of a man and his times that its author would have it judged. It is a book written with a purpose—called out, it would seem, by Mr. Froude's 'Cæsar,' and designed to controvert the view of Cicero taken not only by Mr. Froude, but by most writers of the present day, with Mommsen at their head. It appears at first sight as if this thesis could have been sufficiently well argued in a review article; and indeed, if it were not for the intrinsic excellence of the biography, Mr. Trollope might have

stopped with his introduction, in which he presents his case forcibly and well. In fact, the principal fault of the book is that he recurs too often to his theme, and that too large a proportion of space is given to arguing in Cicero's vindication at one period of his life after another. It would be better, after a full and elaborate introduction, to let the story be its own argument, and the life of the great orator be its own vindication.

When he reaches Cicero's death (vol. ii. p. 245), he sums up his alleged faults as "dishonesty, cowardice, and insincerity," and defends him at some length against the several charges, as he has done upon so many occasions during the recital of his life. But the real and serious charge is that of a want of political consistency. Mr. Trollope finds it easy to show that, as compared with other men of his own time, and even when judged by the standard of our times, Cicero was not as a man, nor even as a public man, markedly dishonest, cowardly, or insincere—in fact, that he was conspicuously free from these faults. But the scorn which Mommsen and those of his school heap upon Cicero has less reference to his personal qualities than to the part he played in the great drama of his day—one of the great tragedies of human history. He was, they say, a dilettante politician, with neither head nor nerve to fit him for the place of a leader, but nevertheless with an inordinate vanity and ambition which would not let him rest in a second place; with no adequate appreciation of the real issues of the time, and no clear policy—a straw tossed upon the eddies of a great revolution. Mr. Trollope practically admits this, only insisting that Cicero has a right to be judged in the light of facts and motives present to his generation, not by the wisdom which comes after the event. He says (vol. i. p. 75):

"We are inclined to agree with Mommsen, because we have seen what followed. But that Cicero, living and seeing it all as a present spectator, should have hoped better things, should not, I think, cause us to doubt either Cicero's wisdom or his patriotism. I cannot but think that, had I been a Roman of those days, I should have preferred Cicero, with his memories of the past, to Cæsar, with his ambition for the future."

This is a perfectly defensible position, and we are inclined to think that it is an adequate explanation of what seems to be blindness and vacillation in Cicero: it is no discredit to a patriotic man to refuse to despair of the commonwealth, and to be unable to see the necessity of a change ushered in by treason and civil war. And, at any rate, the last six months of his life were a period of unqualified glory. At many points of Cicero's career, moreover, it is well to bear in mind that he alone of the leading men of his day stood in a peculiar relation to the parties in the state, belonging wholly to neither one nor the other. He was by birth an equestrian, and he never ceased to reckon himself as belonging to this order; but by his political career he raised himself to the ranks of the nobility—not as being a noble himself, for he was a *novus homo*, but as having all his interests and future career associated with the nobility. Among the nobles, therefore, but not one of them, and never heartily liked by them; a part of the machinery of the oligarchical government, but with personal and family associations which connected him with the opposing faction, he was almost by necessity a "trimmer" of the type that Macaulay describes in Lord Halifax, and, like all trimmers, failed to please either party.

We have mentioned it as one fault of the book

that the biographer and historian slips too readily into the language of the advocate; another fault is indicated by what we have already said, that the nature of the struggle, as based upon the character and workings of the Roman constitution, is not very clearly depicted. It is, in short, a biography rather than a history, and, in so far as it is a history, it is political rather than constitutional. The preliminary sketch of "the condition of Rome" (chap. iii.) is defective from this point of view: men and parties are excellently depicted, institutions are not well described. The constitutional question between Cæsar and Pompey at the outbreak of the civil war (vol. ii. p. 116)—probably the most difficult as well as most important question of this nature in ancient history—is hardly touched upon. It is, to be sure, a life of Cicero, not of Cæsar, but then Cicero's course at this juncture must be judged largely in view of the constitutional principle which was at stake.

On the whole, we are heartily glad that this aspect of Cicero has at last found an advocate; if not absolutely correct, we are inclined to think that this view is nearer correct than the opposite. And whether we agree with it or not, we must say that there is no book within our knowledge which will give to persons who are not scholars by profession so graphic and living a picture of the Roman republic as this.

#### A CYCLE OF CELESTIAL OBJECTS.

*A Cycle of Celestial Objects*, observed, reduced, and discussed by Admiral William Henry Smyth, R.N., K.S.F., D.C.L. Revised, condensed, and greatly enlarged by George F. Chambers, F.R.A.S., etc. Second edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1881. 1 vol. 8vo, pp. xxiii.-696.

THE first edition of the 'Celestial Cycle' was published in 1844, and now sells for about \$25. It has long been out of print, and this second issue may be said to come in answer to a demand. Before examining the distinctive features of the new work, it will be instructive, and perhaps not uninteresting, to give the pedigree, as it were, of the volumes upon which it is based, and to see the origin of the demand.

Admiral Smyth was born in 1788, and entered the Royal Navy in 1805. In the course of his professional duties he was called upon to make a survey of Sicily, and while engaged upon the work he visited Palermo and met the venerable Piazzi, then the dean of astronomers. This meeting had an important effect on Admiral Smyth's future inclinations. He became a devoted amateur of astronomy, and for years was perhaps the best-known private astronomer of England. He was a friend and admirer of the most famous of English astronomers, Airy, John Herschel, and South; and he finally settled himself at the house of his friend Dr. Lee, where he engaged in observations mostly of double stars and nebulae. From Hartwell House (Dr. Lee's manor) he published privately 'Ædes Hartwelliana,' 'Speculum Hartwellianum,' as well as 'Sidereal Chromatics,' etc. Various other works and translations are also due to him, all on important subjects. Thus it appears that, judged either by his companions or by the titles of his books, he was an important personage in astronomical England. These works were always interesting, because they were practically transcripts of what his conversation might have been, and because his varied experience and a natural



bent towards odd and recondite bits of knowledge gave him a store of anecdote and allusion not common to the makers of star catalogues. These last are usually dry numbers arranged in parallel columns and void of poetry, except in the Admiral's most important work, the 'Cycle.'

His distinction was purely a personal and largely a social one. He was not unlike Thackeray's courier, who could be ungrammatical in all the languages of modern Europe, and who, nevertheless, was a very interesting fellow. The works on the Egyptian tablets at Hartwell House, on the incidents of the stay of Louis Philippe there during his exile, on the building of the observatory attached to the manor, are all of real interest, well recounted, and worth the reading, if not of high scientific import. These works, moreover, are well illustrated by engravings made under the Admiral's own eye. One of these engravings represents Admiral Smyth himself making an observation with the transit instrument; and this plate contains a picture of a clock whose pendulum must either have been a very crooked bar or else have been suspended a foot or so *outside* the top of the clock-case. This will, perhaps, illustrate his minor inaccuracies, which influenced not his dramatic effects but his astronomical preciseness.

For some years previous to his stay at Hartwell House he observed double and colored stars with diligence, and as the results of these labors he published the 'Celestial Cycle.' This was in two volumes; the first was a popular treatise on astronomy, the second was the "Bedford Catalogue." The appearance of this work was hailed by friends and admirers, and the Royal Astronomical Society gave its gold medal to the author of the "Bedford Catalogue," thereby approving his results. To appreciate this distinction we must remember that this same gold medal was the reward of Encke for the researches on the comet which bears his name, of Struve for his discoveries of double stars, of Herschel for his observations of nebulae, of Bessel for the parallax of 61 Cygni.

In the "Bedford Catalogue" each object has a paragraph to itself. Its place in the sky is given, and then, if it is a double star, follow the measures of the Herschels, of Struve, etc., and then the measures of Smyth himself. After this comes an amusing farrago of doggerel verse, Arabic lore as to the stars (the Admiral had picked up Arabic in the Mediterranean), notes on the colors of the stars, and speculations on various points. As an example of the lore we may quote from page 430 of the first edition, as follows, a part of the description of the constellation *Aquila*:

"The asterism into which the Sporades are here constellated has ever been regarded as a needless memorial of a 'sporco nume,' and one which might now well be dispensed with. Ptolemy evidently eschews it, for, after tabulating *Aquila*, he places half a dozen *amorphote*, from which, he says, if you like, you may form *Antinous*; wherefore Bailly's reprimanding him for the exaltation is not altogether in place, since it seems that the Bithynian was never regularly gazetted by the ancients."

Or this for poetry:

"From staid Polaris cast a glance to beauteous Lyra's lines,  
Twill guide, rectangular from these, to where Arcturus shines:  
Or lead a line from two bright stars, in Ursa's tail the last,  
The same, prolonged thrice ten degrees, will on that gem be cast."

The "gem" in question is the bright star Arcturus. Here is another sample:

"To strike th' insidious Serpent's heart a line from Altair wield,  
From thence below Ras Alague across th' Arabian field;  
And when as far again you've reached as those two stars may be,  
The middle one of three fair gems, Serpentis Cor, you'll see."

The verse, the Arabic lore, and the speculations

(if original with the Admiral), are no longer thought of. The colors assigned to his stars are known to be usually wrong. But the measures of his stars being expressed in figures, and according to the usual forms, had for long a vogue as results of genuine value. These measures of double stars were of two classes: the first class had usually been measured by other astronomers before Smyth, by Herschel, South, or Struve, and it is a noteworthy fact that in nearly every such case the Admiral's figures agree with those of his able predecessors, and are therefore right. Another class of stars, not properly double at all, consisted in bright stars with very distant minute companions. This class is the Admiral's own property, and the results are almost invariably wrong, and wrong by incredible amounts. On the faith of these measures stars have been supposed to have disappeared, a nebula to be in rapid motion, etc. But the lost stars have all been found, and the nebula is shown by observations, both before and after Smyth's, to have remained in the same place.

These facts have been lately pointed out with some acrimony in the Royal Astronomical Society; and the quarrel as to whether Admiral Smyth was right or wrong has not been settled by an appeal to the sky, but has in a mysterious way become intermixed with the other chronic feuds of the society, in which the names of Col. Strange, Mr. Proctor, and Mr. Lockyer continually resound. This quarrel was at first a purely domestic one, but in the course of it the opinions of a distinguished American observer were quoted, and this became the signal for letting loose vials of wrath upon his head also. But, in the expressive language of the new Northwest, "they waked up the wrong customer," for after a short delay the American observer presented to the Society a brief and temperate critique on the 'Cycle,' accompanied by a complete remeasurement of all the Admiral's objects. This showed that the results of the 'Cycle' were erroneous in the mean of one hundred and twenty-six cases by 25" in distance and 7° in angle! There was really nothing more to be said, and the 'Cycle' as a source of original data was thus shown to be without value. As its amusing doggerel, its erudition, its speculations, and its original measures are of no use, there remains to it only the distinction of being an observing list of the brighter nebulae and double stars, written by an agreeable man of pleasant social qualities and varied information.

We now come to the second edition, which is edited by Mr. G. F. Chambers, already well known by his admirable 'Descriptive Astronomy,' which has reached its third edition. The new work consists essentially of two parts, of which one is what remains of Admiral Smyth's original text, and the other is due to the hands of the editor. Mr. Chambers gives an introduction of nine pages before proceeding to the main purpose. He says that in dealing with the objects registered by Admiral Smyth he has done his best to revise all the items of information, to cancel erroneous passages and observations, and to omit unnecessary comments. He has also stricken out a few uninteresting objects, and he might well have omitted more. In his own additions he has given a considerable number of isolated objects, as clusters, nebulae, doubles, variables, and colored stars, and has included a number of objects in the southern hemisphere. The additions made by Mr. Chambers do not seem to us specially well chosen. In particular

many doubles of Struve's lists are added which are simply interesting as being *double*, and which, so far at least, have shown no evidence of a binary character. He might easily have made better selections from Flammarion's recent valuable work on Binary Stars (1878). The nebulae added are also often quite uninteresting to the amateur, for whom the book is especially intended. As a whole, the selection of objects does not seem to us as judicious as that given by Webb in his little work, 'Celestial Objects for Common Telescopes,' and the latter book is only a third as costly or as bulky.

We must also object to Mr. Chambers's rather crude remarks on star magnitudes and on the revision of the southern constellations by Dr. Gould. It is not necessary to defend Struve against the remarks on magnitudes (p. xix.), nor Gould against the criticisms on "what he calls his catalogue" (p. xxii.). Time has decided in favor of the one, and will decide in favor of the other also. The form for recording observations on page xxiii. is entirely unpractical, and we seriously doubt if a single competent observer uses it to-day. Other technical points of this nature, as the order in which the separate measures of triple stars are given, need not be objected to here. It seemed necessary, however, to mention the points likely to be confusing to a young observer's ideas in a book specially intended for amateurs. The main object of the work is undoubtedly this, and on the whole this new edition of an old work seems to us not the best one to recommend to the possessor of a small telescope. We should rather advise such a one to provide himself with Chambers's 'Descriptive Astronomy,' Webb's 'Celestial Objects,' and Flammarion's 'Catalogue des Étoiles Doubles en motion relatif certain,' and only to add the new edition of the 'Cycle' in case the latest measures (1880) are wanted.

#### CHANDLER'S MEMOIR OF ANDREW.

*Memoir of Governor Andrew*, with Personal Reminiscences. By Peleg W. Chandler. To which are added two hitherto unpublished Literary Discourses and the Valedictory Address. Boston: Roberts Bros.

THE Massachusetts Historical Society is one of those institutions which still retain the good old academic practice of pronouncing obituary orations on deceased members. In the opinion of a late secretary of that society, Edmund Quincy, this custom adds new terrors to death, but it has its advantages. In case of the obscurest man, the habit preserves a name which would otherwise hardly be remembered; it records facts which would otherwise be forgotten. Just now nobody may be grateful for this; but a half-century hence, when this man's grandson has done something extraordinary, everybody will be wishing to trace back his hereditary qualities. Even Miss Anna Seward's memoir of Dr. Erasmus Darwin has become worth reading since Charles Darwin has revolutionized science. Then in the case of a really eminent man there is always a possibility that his full biography may be, for some reason, indefinitely postponed, and that each person who undertakes to fill the gap may prove to have stood too near to see the real proportions of the man. It is undeniable that very much this state of things has existed in the case of Governor John A. Andrew, of Massachusetts; and it is fortunate that the duty of preparing his memoir has been placed in hands so good as those of Mr. Chandler.

Hitherto the best-known sketches of the Massachusetts war-governor have been those of his secretary, Col. A. F. Browne, and of his pastor, Rev. Dr. J. F. Clarke. The latter, indeed, often refers to his eminent parishioner, and it is needless to say that his delineation is always warm-hearted, sympathetic, admiring, and sincere. But it is needful to say, for the sake of historic truth, that the John Andrew whom he portrays is not always the John Andrew of every-day life, whom thousands of his constituents saw often and knew well, in those days. It is impossible to accept that figure of unvarying blandness and sweetness as a substitute for the high-minded, ardent, generous, choleric little man who was the civilian Miles Standish of Massachusetts during the War of the Rebellion. Nor can we recognize as one who "never had an enemy" a man who loved General Butler very much as Miles Standish loved the Indian chief Pecksuot, except that in the more modern instance the knife in the nape of the neck was wanting. Writing with the best intentions, Dr. Clarke and others have smoothed away much of the vigorous individuality of their subject. Fortunately it is not yet too late to repair the error, and Mr. Chandler has done something towards it. Brief though these pages are, they recognize the boyish side of Andrew, as well as the manly and heroic side; they give us his impatient utterances, his exceedingly strong language, his often turgid rhetoric, and the "something like contempt and even abhorrence" (p. 29) to which he was so easily aroused.

It is peculiarly desirable that all these qualities, and those kindred to these, should be frankly handled; for never was there a man in public life more guilelessly transparent than Andrew himself. All his gifts lay in that direction; he could not have dropped a curtain over his policy, or have lowered his voice to a whisper, had the fate of the commonwealth depended upon it. At the State-House, where his predecessor, Governor Banks, had loved to sit with closed doors, and to consult mysteriously with the most commonplace intruder, Governor Andrew met all the world in presence of all the world; and the most timid applicant must have his affairs discussed before any chance came. The governor had, moreover, a great taste for letter-writing, and he liked to read aloud his own letters; and some point involving really difficult political strategy—as in the long contest with Butler, who undertook practically to officer his own regiments—would be discussed in resonant tones for all to hear. Such a man needs on the part of a biographer a frankness like his own. Greater than his own it could not be.

Governor Andrew had no undue personal sensitiveness, and no tact but that of a kind heart; his likes and dislikes were very strong and were never concealed; he took no pains to adapt himself, exaggerated the merits of those whom he liked and the sins of those he disliked, and never learned to guard his expression or policy in dealing with either. The task which he had to perform in organizing and officering the State regiments was something enormous. He performed it, of course, with absolute uprightness; if he discriminated against anybody, it was against his personal friends and associates. It was a great deal to know that such entire integrity was at the head of affairs. But in many ways he was, and used to own that he was, very little fitted by nature for the work; he had no military instincts or aptitudes, and no eminent gift for the very difficult problem of discerning in advance the right men for army appointment.

Always upright and fearless, he was often whimsical, impulsive, unreasoning. Probably there was not a State in the Union where fewer merely political appointments were made than in Massachusetts; but there never was any security that a man might not be appointed for the reason that the Governor distrusted the motives of those who opposed him, or because the man himself had been previously refused a place and had behaved remarkably well about it. The motives and methods were never petty or ignoble, but they sometimes seemed inadequate and not quite solid. Then he had imbibed his full share of the reverence felt at that day for any man who had spent a year or two at West Point or in any foreign army, and this sometimes misled him. He was, moreover, pretty sure to support his nominee through thick and thin, even if it kept a whole regiment in hot water. If the appointment was criticised, the governor only grew indignant: it was because other men were jealous of the candidate's superiority; he was worth all the other officers in his regiment—worth all the officers in all the regiments put together. But if this paragon fell from the governor's grace at last, he fell, like Lucifer, never to rise again.

Mr. Chandler sums it up well by saying that "Governor Andrew more often made mistakes in regard to men than measures" (p. 106), and he records with praiseworthy frankness (p. 125) that extreme emphasis of speech which was a familiar fact to those who knew Andrew well. He frankly recognizes also that element in greatness best stated in the French proverb "Il faut venir à propos," and admits that in ordinary and peaceful times his hero might not have been very prominent. The only point where he seems a little less than fair is in his references to Governor Andrew's celebrated argument against the prohibitory law. It is not quite just to attribute only to "malignant philanthropy" (p. 65) the disapprobation with which this particular speech was received by many. It must be remembered that the orator thought it necessary in that argument not merely to attack the prohibitory law, which was fair enough, but to attack almost as strenuously the whole practice of total abstinence—a practice found necessary by some, and approved by great numbers who are opposed to prohibition. No doubt many unreasonable things were said and written about this address at that time, but most of the sober opposition had less reference to what it said about prohibition than to what it said about total abstinence. It must be remembered, also, that the argument then offered by Andrew did not proceed from him as governor, but as the paid counsel for the anti-prohibitory petitioners; and the fact that he received a fee, and a large fee (\$5,000), for his services naturally gave less popular weight to his utterance than if he had spoken officially.

Mr. Chandler has added to his original memoir a series of "personal reminiscences," which cover the same points with the memoir, and might better have been worked in with it, giving us one sketch instead of two. They are valuable, however, in any form; and the book is farther enlarged by three addresses delivered by Governor Andrew, two of which appear in print for the first time. We find in the whole work much that is excellent, and very little to which exception can be taken. Mr. Chandler's statement that Mr. Andrew never earned as a lawyer "more than enough for the decent and comfortable support of his family" (p. 141)

must be read in the light of the previous statement that "he was earning at the time of his death at the rate of thirty thousand dollars a year" (p. 58). When it is said of the raising of colored troops in Massachusetts, "This was the first authorization of an act which caused the greatest excitement everywhere" (p. 33), the remark is perfectly correct if applied to Massachusetts only, but not if applied to the nation. Five colored regiments were already in existence—one raised in South Carolina, one in Kansas, and three in Louisiana—before authority was even granted to Governor Andrew to enlist any. The service rendered by him was not in originating these enlistments—for that had been already done—but in giving to them the weight of a powerful State at a time when the Confederate Government had refused to recognize colored men as soldiers, and had threatened to hang their officers if captured. More than this, the attention justly excited by the careful way in which the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts was organized and officered, its subsequent good behavior at Fort Wagner, and the picturesque and heroic death of its youthful colonel (Shaw), undoubtedly did more than any other single source of influence to secure the final adoption and popularity of the whole policy. Mr. Chandler has not in the least exaggerated the services of Governor Andrew in this direction; it is only that his statement might lead to misconstruction. As a whole, with some defects of arrangement, this is not only the best tribute yet paid to John Albion Andrew, but the best that is likely to be paid. For it is sadly true that the services of the "war-governors" were best known to their contemporaries, and will be eclipsed in the eyes of posterity—just as the vast services of the Sanitary Commission, for instance, are already eclipsed—by the dazzling records of the actual field.

*Resources of Southwest Virginia.* By C. E. Boyd, E.M. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1881.

SOUTHWEST Virginia has long been known to be exceptionally rich in mineral wealth, but the information on the subject has heretofore been so vague and general that it has been of little benefit to the owners of these mineral treasures, or to capitalists seeking to make profitable investments. But now exact and detailed information upon every point which the immigrant or capitalist would desire to know is presented in the work before us. The writer, a mining engineer, has spent years in the survey and study of the geological features, mining and agricultural resources of this region, and has therefore had the best opportunities to make a complete and trustworthy guide for all who desire to become better acquainted with it. The tract embraced in this survey contains the counties of Montgomery, Pulaski, Wythe, Smyth, Washington, Giles, Tazewell, Bland, Russell, Scott, Lee, Wise, Buchanan, Floyd, Carroll, and Grayson, covering an area of not less than ten thousand square miles. Each county is taken in succession, its geological features described and illustrated by map and section, the mineral deposits traced, the character of the soil indicated, the agricultural products enumerated, and the water-power, the manufacturing facilities, the towns, villages, public improvements, mineral springs, and educational establishments described. In short, the information imparted is of such a character as to give to a stranger a very perfect picture of the country in all its aspects.



A generous soil, extensive forests of the best timber, abundant water-power, a delightful climate, and numerous and valuable mineral springs are in themselves enough to make a rich country. But when we learn that in addition there are in Southwest Virginia ores of iron in inexhaustible quantity in every county; in several, rich deposits of copper, lead, and zinc ores, salt, gypsum, and coals, there is obviously hardly anywhere an equal area containing so many elements of wealth. From the geographical map which accompanies the volume, together with the sections for each county, a very clear idea of the geology of the whole region may be derived. Indeed, the geological features are so large and well defined that two or three sections from the Blue Ridge westward to the Kentucky line would have sufficed.

The eastern boundary of Southwest Virginia is the Blue Ridge; the western, the Kentucky line. Near the northern extremity of Floyd County the Blue Ridge bifurcates, its branches gradually separating and forming an elevated valley, or table-land, which is the highest inhabited and cultivated portion of Virginia. This table-land is occupied by the counties of Floyd, Carroll, and Grayson in Virginia, and Ashe, Alleghany, and other counties in North Carolina. The geological features of all these counties are similar, indeed almost identical. The Blue Ridge was the centre of volcanic energy which upheaved the whole Appalachian system of mountains, and, therefore, as might have been expected, the rock formations of this table-land are igneous or transition, and the soil such as would naturally be produced by their decomposition. Travelling westward from the Blue Ridge one passes in succession over the upturned Palæozoic formations—the Silurian, the Devonian (occasionally), and the Carboniferous. The counties which lie along the western base of the Blue Ridge—viz., Montgomery, Pulaski, Wythe, Smythe, and Washington—form an elongated valley. These counties are almost identical in geological character, the rocks exposed in each being mainly the older Silurian. The next westward tier of counties is composed of Giles, Bland, Tazewell, Russell, Scott, and Lee. These form a second valley parallel with the first. In the eastern portion of this valley the rocks exposed are principally the upper Silurian, and in the western portion the Carboniferous attains a full development. Still further west the counties of Wise and Buchanan are wholly Carboniferous, and, in fact, form a part of the great Appalachian coal-field.

In regard to the distribution of minerals, iron ores are found in abundance in all these counties; in the counties of Floyd, Carroll, and Grayson copper ores of superior quality; along the western slope of the Blue Ridge, in Pulaski and Wythe, lead and zinc ores, both of which are now worked with success; in Smythe and Washington, salt and gypsum in inexhaustible quantities. In Montgomery and Pulaski are coal deposits, not, however, of great extent, but in all the western counties coal is found of the finest quality and inexhaustible in quantity. Besides these minerals, which are the true sources of wealth, gold has been found in Montgomery, and there are indications of silver at numerous points in that and other counties.

Regions rich in mineral resources are generally found to possess no other source of wealth, the surface being usually too rugged or too sterile for profitable culture. Southwest Virginia is a marked exception to this rule. Overlying its mineral stores is a soil of great fertility, adapted to the growth of

the cereals generally, and especially suited for pasture. Indeed, the principal available wealth of this favored territory at this time is its broad pastures and its thousands of cattle. The work of cataloguing its resources seems to have been executed by Mr. Boyd laboriously, faithfully, and, in the main, correctly. We notice, however, that in his sketch of the flora of Wythe County some familiar plants appear under strange titles. For example, *Leucothoe recurva* has been transformed into *Leucothæa Recurra*; the genus *Asarum* has become *Ararum*; *Uzularia* is changed to *Unularia*; and *Clintonia* to *Clintoria*. One would hardly recognize the sweet Lily of the Valley (*Convallaria Majalis*) under the name given in this book, viz.: *Convellata Majalis*. But we presume these are the faults of the proof-reader on one or two pages, and by no means a specimen of the general typographical character of the work. To all who desire full and accurate information in regard to Southwestern Virginia, whether with a view to making investments, or securing a home, or making a tour of its mineral springs and natural curiosities for health or pleasure, this book will be found as useful as is Murray or Baedeker to the European tourist.

*A Romance of the Nineteenth Century.* By W. H. Mallock. [Transatlantic Series.] New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

MR. MALLOCK'S book is misnamed, in the first place: it really is a romance of the Middle Ages presented to nineteenth-century readers as a picture of their own times. Or, if its color is not that of the concentrated and morbid-visionsed period of history, it should be put still further back, and, indeed, reminds the reader not a little of the epileptic enthusiasm of the early African Christians, whose feverish and spasmodic practices in plucking the flower virtue from the nettle temptation are related with a pardonable sneer in the foot-notes of Gibbon. If the scene of it were laid in those times it might be rightly set down as a very clever book, and, as nothing that is historic is of alien interest, Mr. Mallock would be entitled to recognition as well as sympathy. As it is, however, it is a thoroughly fraudulent literary performance, and the more so for being undeniably clever. We make haste to say that we avoid more than a bare epitome of the plot, to give which without offence in less space than he develops it in would be impossible to Mr. Mallock himself. It is a fragment, at best, and entirely of a piece with the rest of its author's work, which is the vague and intense dissatisfaction of a man who can find no rest for his soul outside the Roman Catholic Church, but who nevertheless is fain to remain without that communion for some reason or other. The heroine of 'A Romance of the Nineteenth Century' is a surpassingly beautiful girl, whose brain and heart show not only noble potentialities but actual qualities of the finest sort. She has nevertheless been corrupted to the lowest conceivable degree by a vulgar *roué* of the type which one finds only in English novels, who sends her presents of obscene photographs and amuses himself, while awaiting assignation with her, by carolling low ditties. The hero falls desperately in love with her, and endeavors to draw her to God through her love for him. The action is confined almost entirely to moral introspection, tinted with animalism. The event is the death of both lovers—the girl of heart disease, and the other at the hands of the rake aforesaid.

Now, to represent such characters and action as

these as belonging to the nineteenth century is, as we say, the vice of Mr. Mallock's book. It is wholly a secondary matter that the character of the heroine is an inconceivable character, and violently at variance with what the freest imagination can suppose possible in the utmost complexity of character. The girl of the first part of the book simply inhabits another moral sphere from the girl of the last half; but so far as this is concerned the story might be included with the considerable number of French romances which hinge upon moral solecisms, and might be considered a pendant to 'Mlle. Giraud, ma Femme,' let us say. What distinguishes it is the diseased spiritualism in which the author has drenched it in order to make it appear a typical story of human life—of the war of the members against the spirit. This unites it with the rest of his work, which is designed to exhibit the hollowness of any substitute for faith perceived through the affections. And, we may add, the discerning reader will find it the *reductio ad absurdum* of this theory. Whatever beneficence may exist in this view of the "life which is worth living" is eliminated on this showing; no further proof of which is needed than the fact that the book is ostensibly a moral tractate, and that it nevertheless leaves a very bad taste in one's mouth—a contradiction in terms which is final as regards moral efficacy.

The truth is that Mr. Mallock has in this work made perfectly clear what many people, doubtless, have all along suspected—the fact, namely, that he is not to be regarded as a really serious person. He is familiar with utilitarian terminology, and particularly sharp at discerning the weak points of a purely intellectual credo that claims universality, but he has never offered aught but what Carlyle termed the sprinkling of moonshine as a substitute. And his advocacy of his moonshine, instead of having any positiveness, has always taken the direction of endeavoring to prove that everything else is still less substantial. The reader of this latest book would be justified in inferring that morality and religion are inconsistent. He would, however, reflect that if this be so the sooner religion perishes the better. Mr. Mallock clearly desires to leave the contrary impression, but the sophistication upon which he relies to this end is of the mustiest imaginable odor. To attempt to clothe it in modern garb, and make it appear that the only relief from the weight of sin and the only source of spiritual consolation, nowadays, are to be sought in the attitude prescribed by St. Francis in his famous demand: "Give me not men, but corpses!" cannot be called serious by any one who has apprehended the meaning of the "process of the suns." Whether for better or worse the world moves, and perhaps there never was a better instance of the impossibility of fighting foes of the present (admitting, of course, which we should not, that Mr. Mallock's phantasms need to be exorcised) with the weapons of the past, than is implied in this attempt to adapt the Confessions of St. Augustine, so to speak, to modern needs, with the result of having produced a thoroughly disagreeable not to say nasty book.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allderdice, Mrs. E. W. Over the Hill to the White House. Poetry. New York: Denison & Co. 50 cents.  
Baby Rue: a Tale. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.  
Dyer, Rev. T. F. T. Domestic Folk-lore. New York: Cassell & Co. 25 cents.  
Jeffries, R. Wood Magic. New York: Cassell & Co. \$1.50.  
Northern New England and Canada Resorts. New York: Taintor Bros. & Co. 25 cents.  
Stevens, J. A. Yorktown Centennial Hand-book. New York: Coffin & Rogers. 25 cents.  
Wilson, W. Poems. 3d ed. Poughkeepsie: Archibald Wilson. \$1.

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